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[Punjab Gazetteer,

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				Detail	L OF TAHS	ıls.
DETAILS.	•]	District.	Gujrát.	Khárián.	Phália.
otal square miles (1891-92)			1,819	543	602	674
sultivated square miles (1891-92)		.	1,245	431	406	408
sulturable square miles (1891-92)		$\cdot \mid$	315	34	73	208
rrigated square miles (1891-92)			335	118	17	200
Average square miles under crops			1,159			***
Annual rainfall in inches, average (1868-69 to 1891-92	2) ,			25.3	28.4	20.8
Mu uu 2 - 2 - 2 - 2 - 2 - 2 - 2 - 2 - 2 -						
		- -				
and rillages (1891)			1,338	52:	2 507	308
Number of inhabited towns and villages (1891)			760,875		248,076	203,938
Total population (1891)			720,862		2 242,652	203,93
Rural population (18.71)			40,013	34,58	9 5,424	
Urban population (1891) Total population per square mile (1891)			412	56	8 412	80
Rural population per square mile (1891)	•••		390	50	403	30
Rural population per square into (2003)						
					_	
TY-36	•••		. 72,39	4 36,13	36 13,55	7 22,70
Hindús	•••	•••	19,01	8 6,1	88 6,15	4 6,6%
DIKIID III	•••		669,34	7 266,4	47 228,34	0 174,5
Musalmáns						
	_ 		-	-		
Land revenue (1892-93)		,	7,34,66	3,35,4	1,65,85	2,33,3
Average annual gross revenue	•••		8,04,05	25		

CHAPTER I.

THE DISTRICT.

SECTION A.-DESCRIPTIVE

The Gujrát district is one of the six districts of the Ráwalpindi Division and lies between north latitude 32° 10′ and 33° 0′, and east longitude 73° 20′ and 74° 31′.

Chapter I. A.

Descriptive.

General descrip-

Its shape is, roughly speaking, that of a parallelogram, tion. and it forms the northermost portion of the Jach Doáb lying between the Jhelum and Chenab rivers. It is bounded on the north-east by the Jammu territory of the Mahárája of Kashmír: on the north-west by the river Jhelam, which separates it from the British district of the same name; on the south by the river Chenáb, separating it from the districts of Gujránwála and Siálkot; on the east by the river Tawi, which divides it from the Bajwát or northermost parganah of the Siálkot district; and on the west by the district of Shahpur. At the western extremity of the district, a line drawn north and south from the Jhelam to the Chenab measures 30 miles, while the northeast frontier towards Jammu measures 43 miles. The average breadh is 30 and the average length 60 miles. It is divided into three tahsils, of which that of Phália occupies all the western portion of the district, while of the eastern portion, the northern parts are included in Khárián, and the southern in Gujrát. Some leading statistics regarding the district and the several talisils into which it is divided are given in Table No. I on the opposite page. The district contains two towns of more than 10,000 souls as follows:—

Gujrát	***		•••	•••	•••	•••	18,050
Jalálpur	***	•••	1		•••	•••	11,065

The administrative head-quarters are situated in Gujrát, situated on the Grand Trunk Road, some 6 miles from the river Chenáb. Gujrát stands 24th in order of area, and 12th in order of population among the 31 districts of the province, comprising 1.85 per cent. of the total area, 3.64 per cent. of the total popula-

To	vn.	North Latitude.	East Longitude.	Feet above sea level approxi- mate.
Gujrát Khárián Phalia Jalálpur		32° 35′ 32° 48′ 32° 26′ 32° 22′	74° 7' 73° 54' 73° 37' 74° 15'	820 820 800 890

tion, and 1.74 per cent. of the urban population of British territory. The latitude, longitude, and height in feet above the sea of the principal places in the district are shown in the margin.

Chapter I, A.

Descriptive.

Physical features.

In this district the plain country, properly so-called, of the Punjab reaches its northern limit. The northern corner of the district is cut off from the Jhelam by a range of hills which, commencing on the frontier of this district five miles below the town of Bhimbar in Jammu, passes in a straight line to the south-west till it strikes the Jhelam immediately above the village of Rasúl. After allowing a passage for the river, it rises on the opposite bank, and trending northwards joints the Salt Range. From its entry upon this range the Grand Trunk Road, which has previously run in a straight line across a level plain, enters upon a region of hill and ravine, extending westwards to Peshawar. The Gujrát range, which marks the commencement of this region, is known by the name of Pabbi, that being the name, according to the dialect of the country, for high, raviny unproductive ground: its highest point, 1,400 feet above sea level, and about 600 feet above the plain, is reached in the hill of Mori, three miles to the west of the point where the Grand Trank Road enters the outskirts of the range; the prevailing rocks are of a friable, tertiary sandstone and conglomerate, very prolific in fossils. The range is eminently sterile and unproductive, presenting the appearance of a chaos of bare rocks, deeply seamed with precipitous To the north of the Pabbi hills, a triangular strip of country, nowhere more than nine miles in width, (measured from crest of the range), extends to the Jhelam, gradually tapering towards the west. The greater part of this space is furrowed with deep ravines, the level of what was, once an elevated plateau being visible in the flat summits of the intervening blocks of country. The drainage of the hills coursing through deep channels is poured down into the lowlands of the Jhelam, where it leaves a deposit of sand, rendering the greater portion of the surface unfit for cultiva-Passing to the main body of the district, to the south of the Pabbi hills, the surface of the Doab may be described as descending in a series of steps towards the south and west. a section of the line traversed by the Grand Trunk Road, a gradual rise of 111 feet is shown from the Chenab to Jhelam, a distance (as the crow flies) of 34 miles. Following the system thus indicated, the district may be divided into four parts as follows:-

- I.—The submontane zone—a high and undulating tract lying to the north and north-east;
- II.—A central plateau extending westwards at a somewhat lower level through the heart of the district;
- III.—A tract intermediate, between the central plateau and the lowlands of the Chenab; and
- IV.—A low-lying tract of recent alluvial formation extending to the river bank. To this may be added a fifth zone—the lowlands of the Jhelam.

Chapter I, A.

Descriptive.

The submontane

The submontane tract forms a continuation of the gradual slope from the foot of the lowest range of the Himalayas which runs along the north-eastern boundary of the district, at a distance from it from 10 to 20 miles. The tract is divided into two portions by the Bhimbar nála a stream which drains the hills zone. both beyond and in the neighbourhood of Bhimbar in Jammu, and which crosses the boundary of this district immediately at the base of the north-eastern extremity of the Pabbi hills. Hence it runs due south for 20 miles through the heart of the district, until it is lost in the lowlands of the Chenáb, to the west of the town of Gujrát. To the east of the Bhimbar, there extends in the direction of the angle formed by the Tawi and Chenáb, a high, undulating plateau of sandy soil, sloping somewhat towards the south, and intersected at intervals by four mountain streams fed from the drainage of the onter slopes of the first and lowest range of the Himalayan series. Fed by a small area, they pass in deep channels through the submontane and dorsal zones, doing harm rather than good by draining off their surface water through the ravines which fringe their banks, and rush on to fertilise the low-lands beyond. The width of this tract from porth-east to south-west averages some five miles. Towards the south-east it terminates abruptly in a precipitous bank, from 100 to 200 feet in height, which almost overhangs the waters of the Tawi and Chenáb.

Submontane, west

The lands west of the Bhimbar, which are the head of the main central plateau of the bar, are crossed at an angle by the of Bhimber. Pabbi hills, some 30 miles in length and from three to four miles broad, which, connecting the head of the Bhimbar nála where it enters the district, and a point on the Jhelam river about 30 miles south-west, alter the natural condition of the tract so far as water is concerned, cutting it off from any supply which would otherwise have reached it from the Himalayas, and effectually preventing any percolation from the Jhelam. Wells are here impossible, and these submontane tracts are entirely dependent upon the rain that falls upon them. The soil is dry sandy maira requiring much manure. The fall from the Pabbi hill on either side is great, carrying off down its northern slopes by ravines and nálas into the Jhelam river the rainfall which would otherwise prove ample for the intervening tracts. The southern slopes in the same way, intersected with ravines, bring down the superfluous rainfall on the opposite side, the eastern portion to fall into the Bhimbar, the western to flow across the intervening central plateau due south into the low-land tract, leaving the high table land of the bár, which stretches away west of this overflow, entirely dependent upon the rainfall within the tract supplemented by its deep wells.

The central plateau, a continuation of the Shahpur bar, occupies the heart of the district from its western frontier to the longi-teau. tude of Gujrát. Its head merges imperceptibly towards the north and east with the submontane tracts above described. To the south-east it terminates more or less abruptly in the bank which

The central pla-

Chapter I, A. Descriptive.

The central plateau.

marks the limits of the Chenáb valley. To the north (west of Rasúl and the termination of the Pabbi hills), a similar bank looks abruptly down upon the low-lands of the Jhelam. The soil of this tract is a strong retentive loam, naturally, perhaps, the best in the district; but it needs abundant moisture to render it productive, whereas water is found only at a depth of from 60 to 80 feet below the surface, and cultivation therefore is mainly dependent upon the seasons. The land is gradually being brought under the plough; the grazing lands, on which people used to rely chiefly for livelihood, are gradually becoming contracted, and it is only in the more western portions that any large area of waste land exists. This waste land is covered with low brushwood, and produces, after rain, an abundant supply of grass. The surface drainage is, to a great extent, collected into the channels which carry off the surplus water of the Pabbi hills.

The Chenab valley.

The Chenáb valley, in the widest signification of the term, includes the whole country lying below the high bank of the central plateau. At the extreme west of the district, this high bank lies nine miles from the present river bed. Opposite Ramnagar (in Gujránwála) the distance increases to nearly twelve miles in the neighbourhood of Helan; but thence contracts gradually towards the north-east, until near the village of Dhul, 17 miles to the east-north-east of Gujrát, the bank approaches the river bed within less than a mile. Within the space thus limited, the third of the physical sub-divisions above described may be defined as a belt of country extending immediately below the high bank of the central plateau, from Jalálpur (eight miles north-east of Gujrát) to the western extremity of the district, with an average breadth of about six miles. It should, however, be noticed that the bank is less clearly defined between Jalalpur and Helan than it is to the west of the latter place, so that not unfrequently it is only by a change of soil, or of the aspect of the country, that the transition from one zone to the other becomes apparent to the eye. The soil of this tract is of a good and consistent loam throughout, and water is near the surface. In that portion of the belt which lies in the Gujrát tabsil, the natural fertility of the country is further enhanced by the mountain streams, which, after passing profitless across the submontane and intermediate tracts, spread over the surface as soon as they reach the lower level. In the western portion of the tract this extraneous aid is wanting, and cultivation becomes more and more dependent upon the use of wells.

The riverain of

The fourth belt is that which immediately fringes the bed of the Chenáb and the the Chenáb and receives moisture by direct percolation from the Here the surface soil is much exposed to variations resulting from the action of the annual floods; but, on the whole, deposits of rich alluvial soil prevail; and, water being nowhere more than 20 feet below surface, peculiar facilities are enjoyed for agriculture even in the driest season. Some of the villages are described as having a gradual slope towards the river, while in others the action of the water has terraced the surface with banks of greater or less abruptness. The width of this belt ranges up to 21 miles. Throughout the low-lands there occur channels dry for the most part during the cold season, but filled, either from the river, or from the collection of the surface drainage, during The riverain or the river the Chenab and the the rainy months. Of the former class the most important is the Jhelam. Jalália nála, which, commencing due south of Gujrát, preserves an independent course as far as the border of the Phália talisíl. Of the latter class the most important is the Budhi nála (said, as the name implies, to be an ancient bed of the Chenáb), which collects the drainage of mary of the torrents from the Pabbi hills. It is traceable for many miles below the high bank of the central plateau as far as Helan, whence it tends southwards and, after a very serpentine course, joins the Chenáb near Kádirabad. The low-lands on the banks of the Jhelam in no case exceed two miles in width. The soil is stiffer and more fertile than that of the corresponding tract upon the Chenáb; but in other respects the physical characteristics of the two tracts are very similar.

The description of the river system has been anticipated to a great extent in the foregoing paragraphs. The drainage of the outer Himalayan range and the Pabbi hills is poured down by a series of torrent beds into the submontane plateau, across which, and across the intermediate plain, the water passes in deep channels to lose itself, for the most part, in the low-lands of the Chenáb. The streams rising in the Pabbi hills are individually of no size or importance, and of many the water is rapidly swallowed up in blind ravines occurring in the first few miles of their course. Still, a considerable quantity of water does find its way after heavy rain, either into the Bhimbar torrent, or to the head of the low-lands, where it spreads over the surface of the country or is collected into the Budhi nála before described. The principal streams from the direction of the Himalayas are the Bhimbar, the Bhandar, the Dalli, the Dabúli, the Doára and the Baká!, none of which are perennial.

The Bhimbar, which rises in the second Himalayan range, drains a considerable valley within the hills, and after receiving several affluents from the outer range, through which it passes a short distance to the north-west of Bhimbar, enters this district close to the north-western extremity of the Pabbi hills. From this point it runs nearly due south for 25 miles, fertilising a border of low-land upon its banks, but of no advantage to the country beyond, until it strikes the Grand Trunk Road about two miles to the north-west of Gujrát. It is passed under the road, by a bridge, close to the village of Shaitania, and thence it continues its course, until it crosses the Kunjáh road at a distance of five miles from Gujrát. Up to this point it flows in a broad sandy bed, but beyond this, the water disperses over the country, part going in the direction of the Chenáb and part taking a more westerly course joining the Chenáb 20 miles lower down, near the village of Kádirabad. As long as the torrent

Chapter I, A. Descriptive.

The riverain of

Lines of drainage.

The Bhimbar.

Chapter I, A.

Descriptive.
The Bhimbar.

keeps to one channel, its effect, for good or bad to agriculture is small, but as it disperses it fertilises the land by depositing silt of much value to the cultivator. During the rains an unmanageable flood, the stream usually dries up completely during the winter months, leaving its bed a broad waste of sand. It is fordable at all points except for some hours after heavy rain in the hills.

Effects of the Bhimbar.

Formerly the Bhimbar crossed the Grand Trunk Road about eight miles north-west of Guirát; afterwards it flowed parallel to the Grand Trunk Road and passed into the valley of the Chenáb, near the village of Hariawala. The old bed has disappeared,. the sand, which formerly marked it, has gradually become covered with a silt deposit and the land has again been brought under cultivation: it is only when the flood is exceptionally high, that any water passes by the old channel. most noticeable feature with regard to this torrent is its effect on the villages situated in the line of its course. When the water begins to spread over the land, it is heavily charged with sand and silt; as the force of the torrent diminishes, sand is the first deposited, the silt continuing to be carried onwards. therefore to be observed that villages first coming under the influence of the stream benefit enormously from the silt, but gradually as the force of the torrent reaches them, their land deteriorates by the sand and finally, unless the direction of the stream changes (as is often, luckily, the case) their land is rendered unculturable.

The Ghup nála.

The other streams are less important, deriving their supply from the western watershed only of the Himalayan system. The Bhandar, otherwise known as the Ghup, passes close to the small town of Daulatnagar, and joins the Bhimbar a mile above the bridge by which the latter is passed under the Grand Trunk Road.

In 1890, with the object of irrigating the country on both sides, a bund was thrown across this nala above Daulatnagar at a cost of nearly Rs. 20,000. The project did not meet with the success, which was anticipated. The year was one of heavy rainfall, flood water was not required for agriculture, and much of the country was over-flooded. Moreover the surplus water found its way into a small nala the Shahdaulah, which passes by the town of Gujrát. The stream was arrested at the Grand Trunk Road where the waterway of the bridges was not sufficient to pass the increased amount of water, the houses in the suburbs were flooded, and on the subsidence of the water, malaria of a fatal character almost decimated the population. The bund was then cut and the water returned to its old channel.

The Dalli rises upon the confines of this district, and flowing due south between high banks, enters the low-lands to the northeast of Gujrát. Most of the water is lost in the low country in this direction, but some finds an exit by a well-defined channel

into the Chenáb due south of Gujrát. The Dabúli (marked Dalli on the survey map in the upper part of its course) flows throughout parallel to the Dalli proper, but is a stream of smaller volume. The Doara (also marked Dalli in the upper portion of its course) enters the low-lands close to the town of Jalalpur, to the south-south-east of which place it finds an outlet into the Chenáb. The Bakal, which enters the low-lands three miles to the east of Jalalpur, is entirely lost before it reaches the Chenab.

Chapter I, A. Descriptive. Other nálas.

This river forms the boundary of the district from the mouth of the Tawi westwards. At the ferry opposite Gujrát, in the vicinity of the Alexandra railway bridge, the aggregate width of the annually varying winter channels of the Chenáb averages only a thousand feet; while in the rains the river presents a continuous sheet of water of from 13 to 2 miles in breadth, with a maximum depth of 20 feet, and a velocity of ten miles an hour. The low-lands of the Chenáb have already been described.

The Chenáb.

This river may be estimated as two-thirds of the width of the Chenáb, similarly varying in summer and winter. The bed is chiefly sandy; in parts boulders have been washed down by the force of the current from the hilly tracts in the vicinity of the district. The banks of the river are sloping sand, in some localities succeeded by precipitous banks of loam. Contrary to the conditions of the site selected for the Alexandra bridge and line of Trunk Road of the Chenáb, where the river is very wide, the Thelam is spanned by both rail and road bridge at a narrow and convenient part of the river. The maximum depth of water in the rains is 21 feet, its velocity 8.66 per second.

The Jhelam.

Table No. III shows in tenths of an inch the total rainfall registered at each of the rain-guage stations in the district for ture and climate. each year from 1868-69 to 1891-92. The distribution of the rainfall throughout the year is shown in Tables Nos. III A. and III B. In 1870 the climate of the district was thus described by Captain Waterfield:-

Rainfall, tempera-

"The climate is very bearable, even in the hot weather never oppressive. The rainfall of the district varies from 33 and more inches under the hills to less than 26 in the Phália tahsíl. It rapidly decreases with the distance from the Himalayas and the Pabbi range, which latter also appears to have some power of cloud attraction. The harvest is seldom lost for want of rain, and the zamíndárs have a proverb to the effect that 'rain is always to be had for the asking.' This is fortunate in a district of which two-thirds is dependent upon such rain and upon its arriving seasonably. In dry seasons the sugarcane and other crops, more particularly in the Phália tahsíl, go to feed the cattle, and few sugar-mills are worked. Whether the people have caught the idea, and make the remark to please us or not, I cannot say, but they often state that the increase in the number of trees, more especially during the last ten years, has done much to add to the rainfall."

Considering simply the rainfall of the past 20 years, it is found that during the first decade the rainfall was in excess of the latter decade, and that during the past ten years, it had varied considerably in amount from year to year. When the railway was first constructed through the district, a great Chapter I. A.

Descriptive.
Rainfall, temperature and climate.

demand for fuel, in connection with it sprang up, and the amount of timber in the district was much reduced, but it is impossible to say that, in this fact, the cause of less rainfall is to be found. With regard to rainfall the district may be roughly divided into two parts separated by the Grand Trunk Road. The northeastern portion may be said to enjoy certain rainfall, varying from about 33 inches to not less than 20 inches. In this part, failure of crops from short rainfall is practically almost unknown.

It is different, however, in the south-western portion, not only is the rainfall less, varying probably from 25 inches to 13 inches, but it is also more uncertain in its distribution. In this part, it is not possible to accept the total rainfall, as a guide to rain being sufficient, but it is necessary to examine its distribution most carefully. The rain which is most beneficial to the whole district is that which falls in the first fifteen days of September, and in the last half of the month of March.

Health of the district.

The health of the district is said to be:—

"Notoriously good; and the people account for an improvement, which they profess of late years to have seen, by the increase in the number of trees and extension of cultivation generally. Native physicians speak of 'the soil fevers' being thus consumed and rendered innoceous. Fever and agne are, however, prevalent in Gujrát itself and in the villages lying between it and the river. This is no doubt owing to the floods, which, coming down the Bhimber and Dalli mílas, are hommed in by the ombankment of the Grand Trunk Road, meet at Gujrát, and cannot escape save by the waterway of the six-arch bridge, half a mile east of Gujrát. There are some few cases of goitre (gilar) across the Pabbi hills and near the Bhimbar territory, and in the Phália tahsíl along the banks of the Chenáb. The people think it connected with rheumatism, and consider it not hereditary, but inenrable save in the earliest stage, when, if they can afford it, they use internally a substance obtained from Kashmír called gillar-pattah, the leaves of some plant or tree, which sell at Rs. 15 or Rs. 20 the sér, and are said to have beneficial results. Small-pox too is prevalent along the border of Kashmír territory, and is said generally to come from there."

Fever.

Fever of malarial origin is the most fatal form of disease. It is always prevalent during the autumn months in the villages along the Jhelam and Chenáb, and in those flooded by hill torrents. It is generally worst in October, when in addition to malaria, rising from the drying lands, the variation between the day and night temperature becomes large, and renders people very liable to chill.

The most fatal outbreak of fever, during the late years, was in 1890, when for two months scarcely any person escaped. The state of the district was so bad, that in many villages, people were so reduced, as to be unable to carry on even their bousehold duties. The death-rate from fever alone was 64 per 1,000. The town of Gujrát especially suffered. Ata went up to famine prices and had to be imported from Pesháwar, the people not having strength to grind the small quantity necessary for their own requirements. Subscriptions were collected and a special grant of Rs. 5,000 was made by Government to provide, not only medicine but also food for poorer people, whose means of livelihood had been suddenly stopped in this way. A large

amount of quinine was distributed: it was of much benefit and reduced the fever as a rule, but it was quite impossible to reach the great majority of sick. People are ready to ask for and take quinine, if they can get it on the spot; sometimes they are unable, and often unwilling, to go any distance to get it. They recognize its efficacy, but until it is brought to their doors the medicine will not become universal. The plan which has been adopted in Bengal should be watched as if efficacious there, its introduction into this province might be advisable.

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What is required, is that doses of quinine should be obtainable in the village on payment, the doses should contain white quinine of the best quality and should be packed in such a way that the contents could not be tampered with, and should be endorsed with a Government seal. If this could be done, I have little doubt but that it would be largely purchased during the fever season.

Other diseases.

Cholera, in an epidemic form, is seldom present in the district. Sporadic cases occur during the hot weather, in most years, but as far as can be ascertained the first cases are usually imported.

Scabies and ulcers are very common, and ophthalmia is by no means rare throughout the district. Such ailments must always be expected among a Muhammadan population, existing on poor and often insufficient food, and among whom cleanliness is not regarded with favor.

SECTION B-GEOLOGY, FAUNA AND FLORA.

Our knowledge of Indian geology is as yet so general in its nature, and so little has been done in the Punjab in the way of detailed geological investigation, that it is impossible to discuss the local geology of separate districts. But a sketch of the geology of the province as a whole has been most kindly furnished by Mr. Medlicott, Superintendent of the Geological Survey of India, and is published in extenso in the provincial volume of the Gazetteer series, and also as a separate pamphlet.

Geology.

The manufacture of saltpetre was once a flourishing occupation in the villages of Bhikhi, Kotla Shekhan, Gohra, Aidal and others of the Phália talsíl, and in a few villages of the other tahsíls. The mode of extracting the saltpetre is thus described by Mr. Baden-Powell:—

Mineral products.

"The earth in which it is found is collected and placed on a flat filter made of twigs and supported on pillars three or four feet high; water is thon poured over this layer of earth which dissolves the salt. The solution as it passes through is collected in a vessel placed underneath, baving been made previously to filter through an intermediate sheet of cloth which retains the undissolved impurities. The solution is then evaporated to about one-fourth in bulk by boiling, after which, on cooling, the nitre crystallises. In this impure state it is used for frigorific purposes. It value is Rs. 3 a maund. Purified nitre, shora kalmi, is produced by dissolving, filtering and recrystallising the impure article; when pure it is used for gunpowder, &c., and values Rs. 8 a maund. The manufacrers are the poorer Khatris and Máchhis; besides the license fee to Government,

Chapter I, B.
Geology, Fauna and Flora.

Mineral products. Saltpetre.

they pay to the zamíndárs sometimes an anna a day for water supplied from an irrigating well, and sometimes a fee of Rs. 4 for the season, more or less, for the nse of the soil. Four or five men working at one pan turn out from 20 to 25 mannds per month. They carry on their work during all the dry months of the year. The ontturn of season 1857-58, in this district, i.e., from the close of the rains of 1857 to their commencement in 1858, may therefore amount to 5,500 maunds, or nearly 20 tons. The price of the saltpetre at the manufactories is at present Rs. 3 per maund of 40 sérs. It varies from Rs. 2 to 4 according to the demand. The produce of the pans in this district is for the most part made to the order of the Pind Dádan Khan merchants. It is by thom exported to Mooltan and other chief marts. It is coarse and impure as it issues from the pans but undergoes refinement after export."

	Year	s.		Numbers.
				
1882-83	•••	•••	•••	64
1883.84	•••	•••	•••	36
1884-85		•••		47
1885-86	•••	•••		76
1886-87				145
1887-88		•••		120
1888-89	•••	•••		49
1889-90		44.4		· 42
1890-91				48
1891-92				126
1001-02	•••		{	120

For some years the manufacture declined, the demand for export to Bombay and Sindh having almost ceased, and local requirements being insignificant. In 1867-68 only ten licenses were granted, and the number continued to decrease. Recently however the trade in saltpetre has begun to revive. The number of licenses for the ten years ending 1891-92 is shown in the margin.

The export trade has not revived, and the increased demand is due to increased activity in the manufacture of fireworks. To a small extent the saltpetre is still used for frigorific purposes. Present prices of saltpetre are: impure Rs. 4 to Rs. 5 and pure Rs. 5 a maund.

Kankar.

Kankar is found in the following villages:-

In the Gujrát tahsíl,—Chhokar, Lakhanwál, Kang.

In the Phália tahsíl,—Jhanda, Chohán, Chah Jiwan, Rasúlpur.

In the Khárián tahsíl,—Sumri, Bhatti Bhuta, Sidh, Bhaddar, Hanj.

The deposits, which are of insignificant extent, are either exposed upon the surface, or but thinly covered over, being usually found within the first three feet. Small quantities are annually burnt by the villagers for the supply of lime to meet their own requirements or for use in tanning; but the deposits are turned to no other account. The supply is not sufficient for use in road making.

Lim

Lime used to be manufactured in the Pabbi hills by the Government. Captain Waterfield gives the following information upon the subject:—

"Lime-stone is found in considerable quantities in the Pabbi hills in the lands adjoining the villages of Panjan, Khori, Changas, Warina; the wood for burning being on the spot. Some 15 years ago great quantities of lime were carried as far as Wazirabad and Siálkot, for building purposes, by the people of Háslánwála. They are said to have sold Rs. 11,000 worth. Lattorly the Government, in appropriating as a rakh the Pabbi hills, has taken this perquisite to itself, selling to the Executive Engineer, the local funds, and private parties as

they require it. The people, however, import from the Jhelam district. In the villages of Khariánah and Dhodah of the Khárián tahsíl, an inferior lime-stone is found some four feet below the surface, but it is not much used. It was in 1862 that the Deputy Commissioner first started lime-kilns in the Pabbi hills, not only to assist him in erecting the Government buildings, but also as a miscellaneous source of profit. A contractor agreed to supply 100 maunds for Rs 20, or five maunds for the rupee, which was sold again at Rs. 25 for 100 maunds. In 1865 the succeeding Deputy Commissioner took the manufactory into direct management with an establishment, and the rate rose to Rs. 40 for 100 maunds for the supply, and this being sold at Rs. 50, gavo a profit of Rs. 10 on every 100 maunds to the same fund. The lime-stone, however, of the Pabbi range is not so good as that brought from the Jhelam district, which is burnt in the Pabbi hills. All the lime produced is consumed in the district."

Since the transfer of the Pabbi hills to the Forest Department, Government lime-burning has been discontinued, and indeed the supply was gradually becoming smaller and the income diminishing. For the three years preceding the transfer the net profits were as follows: 1868-69, Rs. 2,209; 1869-70, Rs. 9 0; 1870-71, Rs. 845.

Lime-stone is brought by train to Dingah or other stations adjacent to the bar. The stone is then carted to some village in which a contract has been taken for clearing the land of brushwood. There a kiln is made, the wood and roots off the land used as fuel, the stone is burnt and the lime is then taken back to the railway for sale, or is disposed of locally.

Stone for the metalling of the first few miles of the Grand Trunk Road west of the Chenáb is brought down in boats from Akhnur, in Jammu territory where the Chenab leaves the hills. Between this and the Pabbi hills the road is supplied with stones brought on camels from near Bhimbar. The Pabbi hills supply the road as it runs through them towards the Jhelam, down which boat-loads of boulder stones are also brought. Thus out of 38 miles 21 are dependent entirely upon imported stones.

The wild animals of the district comprise the hyæna, wolf, hog, jackal, fox, nilgai, antelope, gazelle or ravine deer, and the city of district for hare. The two first are fortunately not numerous, and are sport. yearly decreasing owing to extension of cultivation, and as regards the wolf, owing to rewards for its destruction of late years; but the number destroyed has not been great. The wolf's habitat is mostly in the bar, or the Pabbi hills. Nilgai and antelope are but rarely met with. Birds and animals coming under the usual designation of game are not sufficiently numerous to rank the district as an average one for sport. The $b\acute{a}r$ to the west of the district holds a few deer and hare; and the Pabbi a sprinkling of gazelle and hare, and a species of dark coloured fox. Pigs are found in considerable quantities in the belas on the border of the Chenab, where they cause extensive damage to the crops, and are especially numerous in the neighbourhood of Kathála. There are also found the porcupine, iguana, hedgehog, wild cats, both tawny and brindled, the red squirrel, the baru, the bandicoot, musk rats, moles, mongooses and weasels. Amongst birds are found the small bustard, partridges, grey and black, the latter rarely, and sand grouse

Chapter I, B.

Geology, Fauna and Flora.

Lime.

Stone.

Fauna, and capa-

Chapter I, B. Geology, Fauna and Flora

Fauna, and capa-

of both kinds at certain seasons, but not in abundance. Ravens. generally in pairs, are seen in the cold weather. The Chenáb, Thelam and vicinity are visited by kulan, the flamingo, the wild goose, duck, and teal: the latter are occasionally met with city of district for on village tanks, at a distance from the river : snipe are seldom seen, there being no jhils or swamps throughout the district suitable for their abode. During the spring and autumn harvests, quail are found throughout the district. Natives trap the iguana and squirrel. Iguana skins are made into shoes, and squirrel's tails into paint brushes.

Flora.

The district is on the whole well-wooded, there being no part of it which does not produce, or is not at least capable of producing timber sufficient for local requirements. But the great demand which has sprung up of late years for timber and fuel for railway purposes, the enhanced price now obtained, and the extension of eultivation, have all tended appreciably to diminish the amount of timber under the control of the proprietors. The shisham (dalbergia sissoo) grows luxuriantly in the half of the district nearer the Chenáb. Indeed one of the special features of the civil stations is the fine avenues, planted with this tree, about 30 years ago, equal to, if not better than any in the Punjab. The siras (mimosa siris) also flourishes, growing perhaps quicker than the shisham and giving a wider shade with its spreading branches; but the wood, although of good quality when the tree has attained a good age, is more open and coarser in the grain than shisham, of which the best bits polished almost equal rose-wood. The phuláhi also grows well; it is found mostly in the upper part of the district. Its wood is very hard, harder than even shisham and therefore much prized for plough-shares and other implements of husbandry, but it is not so handsomo or close-grained. Its flowers are considered cooling and are used for infusions. The tree most extensively reared, however, and which gives to the face of the country, in some parts, quite a wooded aspect, is the kikar. It grows quiekly and gives a hard, useful wood universally used in There are three kinds—tho large and commonest agriculture. kikar (mimosa arabica); another smaller (mimosa odoratissima) with a very sweet-scented flower; and, thirdly, the kiltri (a male variety of mimosa arabica) with its upward-growing branches and brush-like appearance. The shade this tree gives imperfeet from its minute and feathery foliage. It is thus less objected to, as detrimental to the growing crops under the influence of its shade only in a small degree. The ber (zizyphus jujuba) also flourishes. In point of quality of timber it ranks with the kikar, but it is not so extensively grown, being rather a slow grower, and having a dense foliage and perfect shade. There are many varieties. The fruit of one or two kinds is very palatable, and doubtless might be improved by grafting. The leaves of one variety mallah (zizyphus nummulria) are used as fodder, and the bark of its roots for tanning. The tut

or mulberry, both white and red, are likewise indigenous and abundant. Mulberry wood is wrought for Persian wheels, but is considered inferior. The pipal (Ficus religiosa) grows well if taken care of, but only few are to be found scattered here and there over the district. Muhammadans sometimes use its wood for rafters and doors. Camels browse greedily on its leaves and tender twigs. The bargat (Ficus Indica) is more frequent, and grows to as large a size perhaps as in most other parts of India. It requires, however, to be carefully protected from frost in the winter during the first four or five years of its growth. Mangoes do not flourish. There appears to be something in the soil unsuitable to them. It can hardly be the climate which renders them so difficult to rear, for while it is almost impossible to do so at the suddar station and lower down in the districts, they grow well in some of the undulating and comparatively sterile parts of the district adjoining the Jammu boundary. Across that boundary at the foot of the low hills the tree flourishes and is much grown as a source of profit. The leafless caper (Capparis aphylla) is abundant in the bar. It yields a hard wood of which combs are made. It is also used for rafters as white ants do not eat it. The fruit is used for pickle. The ripe fruit is eaten but is very astringent. The van is common in the bar. Its fruit (pilu) is eaten by the poorer classes in times of scarcity. (Butea frondosa) was common till cultivation encroached on it. Its timber is good for well wheels. Its flowers make a dye, and the leaves make the cups and dishes in which sweetmeat-sellers deliver their sweetmeats. Besides the above-mentioned trees are the júman, jand, resembling the phuláhi in appearance, but generally stunted. Jand tumber is chiefly used for fuel, occasionally it is used for ploughshares; the pods called ságár, which ripen in Jeth and Hár, are eaten as vegetables. Willows of two kinds, poplar, farásh (Tamarix Indica), simal or cotton trees (Bobax heptophylluni), amaltás (Cassia fistula), lasura (Cardia myxa), lasura large leaved (Cardia latifolia), sola (Phyllanthus emblica), sohánjna, or horse-radish tree (Hyperanthera maringa), khirni (Mimusops kanki), kamrukh (Averhoa carrambola), nasut (Erythrina ovalifolia) are found in more or less abundance. few tún trees (Cedrela toona), were planted in the station in 1852 and grow pretty well. Of garden fruit trees, limes of all kinds and oranges, citrons, pomeloes, &c., grow well everywhere. A small kind of apple also flourishes. Quinces are rare, but grow well when taken care of. There appears to be something fatal to peaches in the climate; a blight always seizes the tree and prevents the fruit from ripening. Grapes do well, so do guavas, figs and plantains; loquats fairly; the álú bokhára grows well enough, but the fruit does not ripen; the pomegranate flourishes, the fruit ripening best in dry seasons or with late rains.

Chapter, I, B.
Geology, Fauna
and Flora.
Flora.

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Geology, Fauna
and Flora
Flora.

The plants which are used as vegetable drugs among the people and which abound in the district also deserve to be mentioned, and are thus described by the Deputy Commissioner:—

- "Akásbel (Cuscuta reflexa) is a parasite which grows on ber trees. It is used in bilious diseases, and is considered a blood purifier.
- "Brahmdandi (Microlonchus divaricata) grows in fiolds, and is regarded as a pprifier of blood. It is especially abundant in the Pabbi.
- "Dodhak (Eclypta crecta) grows to the height of a foot, and is used externally for ulcers, and as an antiscptic for wounds in cattle.
- "Bahuphali (a species of Corchorus olitonus) grows to the height of a foot and a half in the rainy season, and is used in veneral affections.
- "Bishkhapra (Primula speciosa) grows in the rainy season to the height of a foot. It is a narcotic.
- "Itsit (Boerhavia diffusa) grows in the rainy season, and is considered usoful for the eyes.
- "Ghikawar (Aloe perfoliata) is used in the treatment of rheumatism and abscesses; a pickle is also made from it..
 - "Bhang (Cannabis sativa) is principally used as an intoxicating drug.
- "Maddr or Ak (Calotropis procera). The cultivating classes eat the leaves when bitten by snakes as an antidote against the poison; and the root and bark are used in the treatment of soveral diseases. It grows in loose sandy soils,
- "Indrayan or tumma (Citruilu colocynthus) grows in the bar and in the village Manochak and Chakla Tarar. The pulp is used as a purgative, and is also given to horses.
 - "Dhatura (Datura fastusa) is used in rheumatism.
- "Bhakhra (Tribulus lanuginosus and terrestris) is used in diseases of the kidneys, suppression of urine, also in cough and diseases of the heart. It grows in maira lands.
- "Raj Hans or Parsiya washan (Addiantum caudatum) grows in old wells, and wet soils. It is used to curo coughs and fevor. Patnu grows in small ponds in the rainy season. It is considered officinal in diarrheen.
- "Bhugāt grows in salino lands. The dow which collects at night on the leaves is considered beneficial in skin diseases. Garakhpān grows in the rainy season in maira lands. It is used internally in skin diseases.
- "Saunchal grows in the rainy season plontifully. It is used as a cure for coughs.
- "Kaknaj (Nicandra Indica) wintor cherry; is used as a medicine for horses, and in gonorrheea. It grows in the rainy season in lands in the vicinity of village sites.
- "Papra or pitpápra (Fumaria Parviflora) grows in the rabi crops. It is used to purify the blood.
- "Salhara grows in rabi and in the rainy season. It is considered useful in several diseases.
- "Put Kanda (Achyranthes aspera) grows plentifully in the rainy season in maira lands. It is used in cases of abscess; and its ashes are used in cases of asthma and cough.
- "Kandyári (Solanum Indicum) grows in the rainy season in maira lands, and is used in skin diseases of children.
- "Nak chhikkan (Myriogyne minuta) grows in the rabi soason. It promotes snee zing and is used in colds.
- "Bahckar or Vasa (Adhatoda vasica) grows in the upper part of the district. It is considered a blood purifier.
- "Isapgol (Plantago isphagula) grows in the Pabbi and in the bar in the rainy season. It is used in cases of dysentery. It increases the milk of the sheep and goats which eat it.
- "Babana (Matricaria chamomilla) is grown in gardons. Its oil is need externally in rheum atism.

- "Chitra (Berberislycium) grows in fields with the rabi crops. It is officinal in skin diseases.
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 and Flora.
- "Kakar Singi (Pistacia integerrima) grows in dry lands in the hot season. It cures coughs.

Flora.

- "Halcon (Cheiranthus annuus) grows in the kharif season. The seeds are used as a tonic.
- "Báthu (Chenopodium Album) is eaten, and is used as a laxativo in diseases of the spleen and bile, and for worms; and externally in injuries to horses.
- "Sarpankh (Tephrosia purpuera) grows in the rainy season, in the Phália tahsíl and at Kiranwála in the Gujrát tahsíl. It is considered to be a purifier of the blood, and to possess properties similar to Kandyári.
- "Nilofar (Nymphea lotus) grows in ponds in the rainy season. It is considered to possess cooling properties.
- "Dandan (Ricinus communis) is officinal in cases of rheumatism. It grows in the neighbourhood of Gulyána.
 - "Lehli is used by the villagers as a purgative.
- "Harnola or Arind (Ricinus communis) is a useful plant, from the seeds of which is made castor oil, and the leaves are used in rheumatic pains
- "Harmal (Peganum harmala) an abundant plant, is burnt in sick room as an antiseptic and deodoriser, especially when any person is suffering from wounds, nlcers or small-pox."

There are no ferns indigenous to the district; even the Pabbi is too dry for them. The only one is the maiden-hair fern, which is found rarely; in the broken brickwork of old wells, or in other damp recesses.

CHAPTER 11.

HISTORY.

Chapter II.

History.

Early history:
Antiquities.

Little is known concerning the early history of this district. The town of Gujrát itself is of modern origin, but occupies the site of an ancient city, the foundation of which is traditionally assigned to one Rája Bachan Pál, a Surajbansi Rájpút, who emigrated from the lower Gangetic Doab, but of whom nothing more is known. The original name of the city is said to have been Udanagri, the everlasting or sweet-smelling city. This tradition is recorded both by General Cunningham and by Captain H. Mackenzie, whose Settlement Report is a principal work of reference on all matters connected with the district. General Cunningham further states that the restoration of the old city is "attributed to Ali Khán, a Gujar, whose name is strangely like that of Alakhana, tho Rája of Gurjara, who was defeated by Sangkara Vermma between A.D. 883 and 901." Captain Mackenzie, on the other hand, records the tradition that the city was rebuilt "in Sambat 175 (A.D. 118) by Ráni Gujran, wife of Badr Sen, son of Rája Rasálu of Siálkot." Both accounts ultimately agree in the final restoration of the city in the time of Akbar (see below). The antiquity of the city is probably beyond a doubt, but it is to be noted that Captain Mackenzie heard of no "antique coins having been found in Gujrát itself by which any trustworthy dates might be fixed."

Other ancient sites mentioned by Captain Mackenzie are those of Helan, 25 miles to the west of Gujrát; Pati Kothi, at the foot of the Pabbi hills; Islámgarh near Jalálpur, ten miles north-west from Gujrát; Rasúl, at the western extremity of the Pabbi hills on the bank of the Jhelam; and Mong, six miles to the north-west of Rasúl. The following account is taken from Captain Mackenzie's Settlement Report:—

Helan.

Helan.—There are some extensive and reputed very old ruins at Helan, but nothing is known to determine its former history with any exactness. Some coins have been picked up among the ruins bearing the date of the eighth century Hijri, but nothing earlier than the Muhammadan times has been discovered. There is a large tomb still in very good order. Slabs are let into the walls bearing inscriptions. It would appear to be the tomb of Mirza Shekh Ali Beg, an Amír of the Emperor Akbar, who was killed in an encounter with the Ghakkars, and is dated 996 Hijri. He founded a village close to Helan, still called after him Shekh Alipur, and possessed by his Moghal descendants.

Pati Kothi.—This is a very old ruin situated on the banks of the Jaba nala, at the foot of the Pabbi. The natives can give no information on its origin or use. It is of no great extent, but is reputed to be part of an old, perhaps buried, city: the bricks are of a large mould, one foot square and three inches thick, such as are never found in buildings posterior to Muhammadan rule, and are very finely burnt: unfortunately no researches hitherto have succeeded in finding inscriptions of any kind. The bricks have often a mark in them as if described with the finger round the thumb as a pivot.

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Pati Kothi.

Rasúl.—An old mosque here contained an inscription commemorating its erection. The date was read as 1000 Hijri or thereabouts. It was placed in the crystal palace by Mr. Edward Clive Bayley.

Rasúl.

Islámgarh.—This is on a very high and imposing mound, which must be very ancient. It is said to have been the head-quarters of the large cháurási of villages belonging to the Varaich Jats: in later times it was converted into a stronghold. The chief chaudries of the Varaiches have their residence and possessions in Jalálpur, to which Islámgarh is close, but the latter is situated within the limits of the adjacent village of Kulachaur.

Islámgarh.

Mong.—This is a very old place, it was prolific in coins of later Indo-Greek Kings, Azas and the great (nameless) Saviour King of Kings, particularily small copper coins.

Mong.

Khwáspur.—The route to Kábul through the district has still the remains of the seráis and báolís erected by the Muhammadan Emperors. The serái of Khwáspur was built by Sukhi Khwás Khan in the year 952 Hijri. Khwás Khan was a man of power in the service of the Emperors Sher Shah and his son, Selím Shah. His mother was a slave-girl in the former Emperor's seraglio, and he himself was married by the Emperor to the daughter of a Ghakkar chief, and deputed to govern this part of the Empire. He immortalized his later master by converting the bhatiárás of the serái, and dubbing them Salím Shahís, or Islám Shahís, which appellation the mochís of the village and its neighbourhood give to their caste to the present day.

Khwáspur.

Khárián.—At Khárián there are two very large báolís. Both are said to have been built at the same time, and their very different appearances now are accounted for by the western one having been thoroughly repaired by Sardár Laihna Singh. The eastern báoli is in its original state, built of stones, now very much worn: over the top of the steps is a massive dome with an inscription. It simply records the completion of the work in the month of Ramzán 1013 Hijri, in the reign of Akbar, who ordered it to be built by Fatehulla, son of Háji Habíbulla, and that it cost 11,000 Akbari rupees, and it concludes with a prayer that the maker's sins be forgiven. Khárián bears the

Khárián.

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prefix of a serái, but it does not appear that a serái was ever built here. It was a staging place, and the báolís were provided, but no serái.

Naurangabad.

The serái of Naurangabad was built by the Emperor Aurangzeb, who gave his title of Alamgír to it. It is improperly called the serái of Naurangabad, which is a village half a mile distant and altogether out of the Alamgír lands, which were granted to certain Khatris to preserve the serái. But during the Sikh rule there was a cantonment at Naurangabad, which probably accounts for the serái becoming known by that name also.

Chokandi.

Besides the above there are no relies of the Imperial sway, except the ruins of a hunting residence near Alamgarh, in the upper part of the district. The ruined edifice still goes by the old Sanscrit derived name of Chokandi. It was built by the Emperor Akbar Shah in the 34th year of his reign, and was the first halting-place after crossing the Chenáb in the Royal progresses from Delhi to Kashmír.

These seráis have long ceased to serve their purpose. After the decay of the Empire, their utility was no longer appreciated, the materials were to a large extent appropriated to other purposes, and now the walls, or their foundations only, can be traced through the mass of plebian habitations which cover their sites, but their remains attest their substantial construction, and are still monuments of large-hauded wisdom and public beneficence, which found no imitators in the Sikh or Duráni Governments which succeeded.

Mong: Nikea.

Rasúl and Mong are also mentioned by General Cunningham. The latter place he identifies with the town of Nikœa built by Alexander upon the field of his celebrated encounter with Porus after forcing the passage of the Jhelam. An account of the battle and the reasons assigned by General Cunningham for this identification are given in the Gazetteer of the Jhelam District. At the conclusion of the passage there extracted, General Cunningham gives the following account of the town of Mong*:—

"The name is usually pronounced Mong, or Mung, but it is written without the masal, and is said to have been founded by Rája Moga or Muga. He is also called Rája Sankhár, which I take to mean king of the Sakas or Saca. His brother Ráma founded Rámpur, or Rámnagar, the modern Rasúl, which is six wiles to the north-east of Mong and exactly opposite Diláwár. His sister's son, named Kámkamárath, was Rája of Girják or Jalálpur. The old ruined mound on which Mong is situated is 600 feet long by 400 feet broad and 50 feet high, and is visible for many miles on all sides. It contains 975 houses built of large old brieks; and 5,000 inhabitants, who are chiefly Jats. The old wells are very numerous; their exact number, according to my informant, being 175. I have already stated that I take Mong to be the site of Nikca, the city which Alexander built on the scene of his battle with Porus. The evidence on this point is, I think, as complete as could be wished; but I have still to explain how the name of Nikca could have been changed to Mong, The tradition that the town was founded by

^{*} Ancient Geography, pp. 177-179; Archaelogical Survey Reports, II'. 1868-7.

Rája Moga is strougly corroborated by the fact that Maharája Moga is mentioned in Mr. Robort's Taxila inscription. Now, Moga is the same name as Moa, and the coins of Moa, or Manas are still found in Mong. But the commonest Greek monogram or these coins forms the letters NIK, which I take to be the abbreviation of Nikwa, the place of mintage. If this inference be correct, as I believo it is, then Nikea must have been the principle mint-city of the great king Moga, and therefore a place of considerable importance. As the town of Mong is traditionally attributed to Raja Moga as the founder, we may reasonably conclude that he must have rebuilt or increased the place under the new name of Mogagrama, which, in the spoken dialects, would be shortened to Mogaon and Mong. Coins of all the Indo-Scythian princes are found at Mong in considerable numbers, and I see no reason to doubt that the place is as old as the time of Alexander. The copper coins of the nameless Indo-Scythian king are especially found in such numbers at Mong that they are now commonly known in the neighbourhood as Monga sáhis."

Chapter II. History. Mong : Nikosa.

Colonisation

of

The period of the colonisation of the district by the Jat and Gujar tribes, who are its principle occupants at the present the district. day, cannot be fixed. Captain Mackenzie, who appears to have instituted a careful examination of the tribal legends as preserved in the songs of the village bards (mírúsi) was unable to come to any conclusion upon the subject. He gathered, however, that there was a concurrence of testimony that the colonisation was effected from the east, and that the bulk of the Muhammadans are proselytes of the last 200 or 250 years. Captain Waterfield, who conducted a revision of the Settlement in 1866-68, adds his testimony that the people look back no further in their history than the establishment of the Mugl power in the 16th century. An account of the tribes here alluded to, will be found in a later part of this account.

Traces of settled government in a portion of the district are to be found at a period nearly a century earlier than that period. indicated by Captain Waterfield. In the reign of Bahlol Lodi (A.D. 1450-88), it appears that a tract of country on the right bank of the Chenab and including part of this district, was separated from the Province of Sialkot, and erected into an independent charge under the name of zila Bahlolpur. ensuing century was an era of great confusion, preceding the consolidation of the Delhi Empire under Akbar. In the 32nd or 34th year of his reign, Akbar is said to have visited this part of the country, and having induced the Gujars of the neighbourhood to restore Gujrát, made it the head-quarters of a considerable district, half of which was occupied by Gújar clans, the other half by Jats. This new district was known as Chakla Gujrát: it was divided into two primary subdivisions the parganas of Gujrát and Herát, the latter being the Jat and the former the Gujar country. There was subsequently a third pargana formed, that of Sháhjahánpur. The parganas were subdivided into tappas, and the tappas again into tops. The records of this period are still extant, preserved in the families of the hereditary kanúngos, or record-keepers. From these it appears that Chakla Gujrát comprised 2,592 mauras or villages, computed to contain an area of 1,510,496 bighas, and assessed to a maximum revenue of Rs. 16,34,550. This system was continued until the death of Aurangzeb in A.D. 1707 plunged the

Muhammadan

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Empire into new disorder. The state of the country under the Moghal Empire is described by Captain Mackenzie:—

Mu h a m m a d an period.

"Little is said or remembered of the administration of the Delhi governors. It would, however, seem to have been generally good. The rights of the agricultural population were respected, taxation limited and upon the whole moderate. Money assessments were sometimes made, though their continuance seems generally to have been of short duration. Petty exactions under a variety of pretexts were numerous; but the system, irregular though it may have been, was perhaps not oppressive. Bad seasons sometimes laid waste the fields, but the people were not driven to desert their homes by active tyranny."

The details of internal administration appear to have been mainly left to local magnates appointed under the name of chaudhri for every top or group of villages. The chaudhris were also responsible for the revenue, receiving, by way of compensation, more favourable terms in the leases of their holdings than were accorded to other members of the community.

During the decay of the Empire the district suffered much. In 1738 it was ravaged by Nádar Shah and was soon afterwards overrun by the Ghakkars of Ráwalpindi under Sultán Mukarrab Khán, who succeeded in establishing himself at Gujrát about the year 1741. From 1748 to 1761 the district was a prey, with little or no respite, to the advancing and retiring armies of Ahmad Sháh, Duráni, whose route to and from the Punjab lay across it; the government meanwhile being nominally administered by Mukarrab Khán, who had been confirmed in his possessions by the Duráni monarch. The state of the country at this period is illustrated by the saying, still current, —Khádá pítá lah da, rahnda Ahmad Shah da. "Nothing was left to the people but the food and drink in their mouths; the rest was Ahmad Shah's."

Sikh period.

Mukarrab Khán thus ruled Gujrát until 1765, when Sardár Gujár Singh, Bhangi, crossed the Chenáb, advancing at the head of a large force from his possessions in Lahore and Amritsar. Mukarrab Khán gave him battle outside the walls of Gujrát, but was defeated and compelled to retire beyond the Jhelam, this district falling without further struggle into the hands of the conqueror. In 1767, when Ahmad Shah made his last descent upon the Punjáb, Gújar Singh retired, bending before the storm; but in the following year again marched northwards, and, having recovered his former conquests with but little trouble, laid siege to the famous fort of Rohtás in Jhelam. On this occasion he was allied with Sardár Charat Singli, Sukarchakia, grandfather of Ranjít Singh, with whom he now divided the upper Punjab. The greater part of this district, together with the town and fort of Gujrát, fell to the share of Gújar Singh. As soon, however, as his affairs in the north were definitively arranged, Gujar Singh, who was intimately mixed up in the intrigues for power which centred at this period upon Amritsar and Lahore, divided his territories between his two eldest sons, Sukha Singh and Sáhib Singh, the latter being installed at Gujrát. The brothers, however, soon

quarrelled; and in an action which took place between them Sukha Singh was killed. Hereupon Gújar Singh, marched northwards to punish Sáhib Singh. The latter at first made preparations for resistance; but a reconciliation being effected he was permitted to retain Gujrát. A short time later he again incurred his father's anger by disregarding his instructions in giving up to his brother-in-law, Mahán Singh, Sukarchakia, one of the leaders of the Chatta tribe of Gujránwála, who had sought a refuge with him. Gújar Singh was deeply indignant at this act of disobedience, and is said to have cursed his son, praying that, as he had insulted and dishonoured his father, so his son might insult and dishonour him. The old Sardár then retired to Lahore, where, his son's conduct preying on his mind he fell ill, and died in 1788, leaving his estates to his youngest son, Fatah Singh.

Sáhib Singh, however, his father's wishes notwithstanding, obtained possession of the whole territory which had belonged to him. Fatah Singh took refuge with Mahán Singh, who espoused his cause, and hostilities ensued, in the course of which Sáhib Singh was at one time closely shut up in the fortress of Sodra. Obtaining assistance, however, from Karm Singh, Dulu, he succeeded at length in beating off the attacks of Mahán Singh who shortly afterwards died, leaving the quarrel as a legacy to his son, the famous Ranjít Singh (A.D. 1791). Sáhib Singh was now unmolested at Gujrát, which he continued to make his head-quarters until 1797, when he retired to the hills before the advancing army of Shah Zamán. Emerg-

ing immediately the young king's back was turned, Sáhib Singh again occupied Gujrát, and, in alliance with the chiefs of Attári and Wazírabad, defeated the Lieutenant placed by Shah Zamán

in charge of Pind Dádan Khán.

At this period Ranjít Singh was rapidly consolidating his power, and finding occasion in the wrongs of Fatah Singh, marched against Gujrát. A desultory warfare of some months duration ensued, but was brought to an end by a reconciliation effected between the brothers, after which Sahib Singh again enjoyed a period of peace and quiet. He was now, however, beginning to lose the energy which had hitherto distinguished him, and is said to have given himself wholly up to drunkenness and debauchery, in which state he appears to have unresistingly accepted a position of subordination to his quondam rival. In 1806 he accompanied Ranjít Singh upon his Patiála campaign. and when, four years later, the Sikh monarch at length resolved upon his deposition, he withdrew without a struggle to the hills before the force sent to occupy his territories. This occurred in A.D. 1810. A few months later, at the intercession of his mother, Mái Lachhmi, Ranjít Singh conferred upon him in jágír the Bajwat territory, now belonging to Siálkot, where he resided till his death, which took place in 1814. The names of the Sardárs Gújar Singh and Sáhib Singh are often in the moutas of the people of this district, who look back to their rule without

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the smallest bitterness. They seem indeed to have followed an enlightened and liberal policy, sparing no effort to induce the people, harried by twenty years of constant spoilation, to settle down once more to peaceful occupations. The regime introduced after the annexation effected by Ranjit Singh in 1810, though more rigorous than its predecessor, appears still to have been more tender in its consideration of the rights of the people than was the case in other parts of the Sikh dominion.

The district was formed into talukas, of which the largest was that which had its head-quarters at Gujrát. This, according to statements prepared by Captain Mackenzie, contained 581 villages out of the 1,339 which composed the district at the time of his Settlement. The remaining talukás were those of Kádirabád, Phália, Dinga, Kunja, Wazírabád, Kathála, and Khari Kariáli. The Gujrát, Khari Kariáli and Kádirabád talukás were retained under direct management (khálsa) while the remainder of the district was with few exceptions, either farmed to contractors for the revenue, or granted in jagír on condition of military services. The talukás were further subdivided into zails, of which the following list is taken from the Settlement Reports of the district:—

Detail	of	zails	under	Sikh	rule.
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Name of talukar. No. of zail.		Name of zail.	Name of talukas.	No. of zail.	Name of zail.	
Kádirabád { Phália } Dinga { Kunja } Wazírabád Kathála Khari Kariáli { Gujrát }	2 3 4 5 6 7 8 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 20 21 22	Kádirabád, Músa, Garbi, Helan, Phália, Jokalián, Pahriánwáli, Wasusobáwa, Dinga, Chakaryán, Kaulanwála, Májra, Sadulahpur, Kunjah, Maghowál, Shádiwál, Kathála, Kathála, Khohar, Khari Kariáli, Gangwál, Kariánwála, Dhariya,	Gujrát	24 5 6 7 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	Bhago. Guliána. Khwáspur. Daulatnagar. Bhimbar. Kotla Kakráli. Barnála. Chechi Chuhan. Handu. Nanowál. Mari. Thatta Músa. Shahbázpur. Ramki. Pindi Miáni. Bbágowál. Lakhanwál. Jalálpur. Dhul. Suk. Shekhpur. Chakri. Kasba Gujrát.	

The limits of these zails were not at first mapped out with any accuracy. The first governors of Gujrát under Ranjít Singh were Khalifa Núr-ud-din and Fakír Azíz-ud-dín, whose system is thus described by Captain Mackenzie: "Wherever they found powerful or influential heads of clans, they propitiated them by the bestowal of ináms and by maintaining their influence." These men soon assumed the position of half government officials, half clan representatives. They attended darbár the court of the royal agents); they we re consulted on all points affecting the administration of the revenue in their

"respective tracts. These tracts soon became exactly defined " and denominated zails, and within their limits the chaudhris, "now termed zaildárs, were employed as fiscal agents or assis-"tants, go-betweens to the Government and the agricultural "community. Sometimes they would even be given a contract "for the revenue of their respective zails."

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In the collections made from the cultivators, whether in the portions of the district retained by State (khálsa) or in the remainder of the district, the general rule followed was that of division of the crops (batái), the share taken by the State, by the farmer of the jágírdár, being calculated at one-half. If the crops were not actually divided, the revenue would be taken by the system of appraisement known as kankut, the State share being still one-half. In some few cases, a money assessment appears to have been made in the form of an acreage rate, or a rate upon ploughs, but arrangements of this kind were exceptional and rarely lasted for long. In poorer villages onethird only of the produce would be assumed as the State share; but even here, generally speaking, the full half-share would be made up by a larger number of extra charges. Such was the general rule; but in the upland tracts of the Bár, and in other parts where the expense of reclamation was for any reason more than ordinarily heavy, the Government demand was in some cases pitched so low as one-fourth. The greater number of the agents who afterwards held the administration of Gujrát under the Sikhs, were men of no note. To this however, there is one exception in the case of Rája Guláb Singh, afterwards ruler of Kashmir, who was contractor for the revenue of the whole upper portion of the Chaj Doáb from 1834 to 1846. His administration is favourably remembered by the people; and Captain Mackenzie speaks highly of the success of his efforts to promote the spread of cultivation.

> Annexation; bat-Chiliánwála.

The district first came under the supervision of British officers in 1846, when Lieutenant Lake effected a settlement of tles of Gujrát and the land revenue under the orders of the provisional Government established at Lahore. On the outbreak of the second Sikh war Guirát was for some time in the hands of the insurgent Sikhs; and it was within the borders of this district that the final struggles-the battles of Chiliánwála and Gujrát-took place. The district then, with the remainder of the Punjab, passed under British rule.

The operations so far as they concern the Gujrát district are thus described by Captain Mackenzie:—

"Advancing from Lahore the British army, in 1848, first met the Sikhs at Rámnagar, whither they advanced from their entrenchments at or near Jokalián on the right bank of the Chenáb, to meet us. Threatened on their left flank, on the right bank of the orehat, to meet as. Intercence on bleir left hank, they speedily retired, fighting as they went the battle of Sadulahpur. The bulk of the British army then advanced to Helan; the Commander-in-Chief with head-quarters crossing the Chenáb encamped at Jokalián; after a month's halt, a junction took place at Lasúri. The Sikhs were entrenched on the sonthern spur of the Pabhi hills, their left on Rasúl. The following day Lord Gough advanced to Dingah, the khalsa dosconded into the plains, and the

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Chiliánwála.

opposing armies met in the jungles of Chilianwala. Another month's halt and the Sikhs vanished from the opposite crest of the hill, re-appearing at Gujrát. Striking our camp we again marched to Lasúri, then to Kunjah, then to Shádiwál; Annexation; bat of victory and unappalled at the vast array (extending from Dhirk to Adwal) tles of Guirat and opposed to and about to overwhelm them, the Sikhs after many fruitless at tempts to bear up against our artillery and a sharp struggle in the village of Kalra, lost the battle of Gujrát and with it the kingdom they had won and consolidated 85 years before. Ton days later they were passing harmless and dejected through the camp at Kathála on their way to their homes; taunted by the very men against whom, in 1857, they were destined to be raised up and led to victory in so wonderful a manner through the walls of Delhi. The graves of those who fell at Chilianwala were, in 1851, enclosed by a substantial masonry wall, and a handsome stone obelisk standing in the centre marks the spot which was that of the field hospital during the action and immediately in the rear of the field of battle. The graves of those who fell at Gujrát are similarly enclosed and preserved."

> Chiliánwála is now known by the people of the neighbourhood as Katalghar or the "house of slaughter." A second monument in the form of a cross was erected by Lord Mayo during his term of office.

The mutiny.

The following account of the events of 1857 is taken from the Punjab Mutiny Report :- "The danger here was, comparatively speaking, a transient one. The chief fear was from the wing of the 35th Native Infantry, which was known to be mutinous to the core. On the 17th June they were ordered out of the station and directed to join the head-quarters of their regiment at Siálkot. They spent the first night of their march in abusing each other for not having resisted the ejection. The regiment afterwards joined General Nicholson's movable column, and was disarmed by him at Phillour on the 25th July. When the Jhelam mutineers broke away, a small party of them reached an island in the Jhelam, and were destroyed by a party under Captain Elliot, Officiating Deputy Commissioner. Captain Elliot was accompanied by Mr. Teasdale, a clerk in the District Office, who behaved with distinguished gallantry. All threatened sedition in this district was, throughout the whole of the period under review, vigorously put down by Captain Mackenzie, the Officiating Deputy Commissioner, who took Captain Elliot's place when the latter was appointed to the Siálkot District."

Famines. Satparopiya or chalis, A.D. 1783.

Four great famines live in the recollections of the people. San From the autumn 1839 (Sambat) to the spring of 1842 no crops were saved owing to the want of rain during five harvests; people were compelled to support life by eating the bark and leaves of trees, and the price of grain reached seven propi, or 13 topa, or about 31 sers for the rupee; hence this famine was called the seven propiá or chaliyah from the year 1840, when it was at its height. So many died that bodies were thrown into the wells unburied; mothers threw their children into the rivers, and even cannibalism is said to have been resorted to. People fled towards Kashmír and Pesháwar, and only those remained who had cows or buffaloes, sheep or goats. These latter are supposed by a special interposition of Providence, and notwithstanding deficiency of forage, to have given three and four

Chapter III, A. Statistical.

Most of them were, however, inadmissible, claims were made. owing to the occupancies, possession, &c., having been so long the consequent impossibility of defining the intermixed, Measures adopted. boundaries. But a good number were declared separate. we proceeded, however, it was found that this would not do. -Infants cannot stand by themselves all at once: the advantages of partition were imperfectly apprehended by the applicants themselves, the real object was lambardári. Although the law allows it as a legitimate escape from the joint responsibility bound, it was ultimately decided to refuse perfect partition to weak communities for this settlement, and only 157 tibbis were formed into separate mauzas.

Immigration and emigration.

Table No. VI shows the principal districts and States with. which the district has exchanged population, and the number of migrants in each direction. The question of migration is discussed at length in Part II of Chapter III of the Census Report of 1881. The number of people enumerated as born in the district is 7,74,656, of whom 4,19,680 are males and 3,55,006 are females. The total gain and less to the district by migration is shown below:—

Proportion	per mile e	f total P	onulation.
------------	------------	-----------	------------

Detail.					C _{ENSUS} 1881.		CENSUS 1891.		
					Gain.	Loss.	Gain.	Loss.	
Persous Males Females	•••	···				61 50 72	6S 72 63	52 33 75	69 78 60

The total number of residents born out of the district is 40,624, of whom 13,957 are males and 26,667 are females. number of persons born in the district, and living in other parts of the Panjab, is 54,435, of whom 33,123 are males and 21,312 are females. It will be seen from the table above, that as compared with 1881, in 1891 the gain from immigration was less while the loss from emigration was more. The emigration of males from the district is more than double the immigration, but on the contrary the immigration of females is greater than the emigration. The places in which emigrants from Gujrát largely exceed the immigrants they give to Gujrát, are Lahore, Jhelam and Ráwalpindi.

The following remarks on the migration to and from Gujrát are taken from the Census Report of 1881:—

[&]quot;Here again the pressure of population is very great, and Gujrát given to every district in the list, even to Amrits a and to Sialkot, where the pressure is still greater; but all the other neighbouring districts are very scantily peopled, and the surplus population of Gujrát flows into them readily; and if it were not for the large influx of people driven by famine from Kashmir, emigration would exceed immigration by 52 per cent. A great deal of such immigration as there is, is of the reciprocal type, but the emigration is almost entirely permanent."

The number of inhabited and uninhabited towns and villages by tahsils as ascertained at the census of 1891 is shown below:—

Chapter III, A. Statistical.

Distribûtion

:				population.
	Total towns and villages.	Inhabited towns and villages,	Uninhabited towns and villages.	r-r-www.
•••	557 544	522 507	35 37	
•••	539	309	30	
		557 544 539	10tal towns and villages. towns and villages. 557 522 544 507 539 309	Total towns and rillages. towns and villages. towns and villages.

Former distri-

The following extract from Captain Mackenzie's report Former distribution by villages bution by villages. having existed in old times to that which now obtains:—

"There is no doubt that during Muhammadan times a much more minuto separation of properties obtained then at present, or at any time subsequent to that epoch. Chakla Gujrát of the imperial times formed only a part of the present district, but it contained 2,295 villages, 1,538 principal and 757 subordinate. The exact state of things, as they existed in those times, is, of course, not precisely ascertainable. It is possible that in many cases as the properties were distinct, so were the village sites. Many deserted mounds are scattered over the face of the country, but on the other hand many sites of existing villages are comparatively new. The probability, however, is that in the times which Abmed Sháh, Duráni, made so troublous, a much greater concentration of the village communities took place than had existed before. The inhabitants of distinct hamlets collected together the botter to resist the common enemy; and in the depression which followed almost all previous distinctions were lost sight of. In the course of time concentration of dwellings became a custom, and the Sikh system of government which supervened did not tend to, dissolve the new bond of union. Boundaries were forgotten, occupancies had become promiscuous. The combined sections of the community were from the first nearly connected by the tie of clan and possibly relationship. Pedigrees were but half remembered, nothing romained but a tradition that the village was composed of two or more families, to each of whom, in former times, belonged a separate estate."

The leniency of our system revived the desire for separa. Dos tion. The chaudhris or lambardars probably belonged to the ation strongest section of the community, and had lorded it over the whole body, monopolising the perquisites and profits of office for three generations. An opportunity for emancipation was now discovered. So far as recollection or exact knowledge of the people was concerned, the matter might be only traditional, but records of past times existed, and were jealously preserved by the descendants of their old custodians. A small fee procured the desired information, obsolete names were ferreted out, the requisite particulars as to area, &c., were ascertained and a suit duly filed.

Mr. Prinsep was at the first of opinion that wherever practicable it would be better to divide, and accordingly a general investigation into the exister at a large number of made mauzawar. The result was that

Desiro at annexation for separation.

Measures adopted.

CHAPTER III.

THE PEOPLE.

SECTION A.—STATISTICAL.

Chapter III, A.
Statistical.
Distribution
population.

Table No. V gives separate statistics for each tahsil and for the whole district, of the distribution of population over towns and villages, over area, and among houses and families; while the number of houses in each town is shown in Table No. XLIII. The statistics for the district as a whole give the following figures for 1881 and 1891:—

		1881.	1891.
	(Persons	93.85	94.07
Percentage of total population who live in village	ges { Males	93.97	94.85
Percentage of total population who live in villa	Fomales		/ 94.61
Average rural population per village		486	540
Average total population per village and town	*** ***	., 517	568
Number of villages per 100 square miles	•••	68	73
Average distance from village to village, in mile	s	1.30	
(Motol ango	Total population	349	412
(Total area	Rural populatio	328	390
Density of population per la	Total population	597	611
Density of population per { Total area { Cultivated area { Culturable area {	Rural population	ı 560	579
Culturable um o	Total population	415	521
Contarable area {	Rural population	a 390	494
Number of resident families per occupied house	1 11114200 .	. 1.83	1.57
rumber of resident families per occupied house	(TOWES .	1.42	.79
Number of persons per occupied house	e Tr'11	8.53	7.44
ramber of persons per occupied house	··· { Towns .	5.79	5.77
Number of persons per resident family	Villages .	. 4.66	4.74
ranger of bersons ber resident family	\cdots $\left\{ egin{array}{ll} \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ $	4.09	7.45

The actual figures for families, inhabited houses, and population for the district is given below:—

Detai	ils.		Towns.	Villages.	Total.
Number of families Number of houses Population	***	 	5,370 6,934 40,013	152,063 96,847 720,862	157,433 103,781 760,875

The most striking feature of these figures is that in the towns the number of inhabited houses is shown as greater than the number of families, and as this is the only district in the Punjab where such a difference is shown, it is probably the result, rather of inaccurate enumeration, than of actual difference.

"British administration had not long obtained ere these lawless tribes essayed to try its strength. On the very night of the battle of Gujrát a daeoity was committed in the town of Jalalpur. This was followed up by constant minor forays during the first few months of our rule, just within the boundary, and in July 1849 the Knddala people fell upon the village of Assar. Strong and prompt measures, however, earbed them, and no great act of violence was committed by during British rule. them until 1857, when, conceiving the withdrawal of troops for the siege of Delhi to be their opportunity, the Chibs of Deva, on the 9th August 1858, made a descent upon the village of Dakhna and gutted it of everything it contained. They brought camels and all the necessary apparatus for carrying off the booty, and in the course of operations wounded severely eleven men and three women. So weak were the measures taken by the Jammu authorities to bring the criminals to justice and prevent the recurrence of such an outrage, that a chain of posts, comprising in all 60 foot men aud 30 horse, had to be stationed along the boundary for a period of six months. At length, however, in January 1858 the Mahárája sent a feree to the spet and burnt the village of Deva, prohibiting at the same time its reconstruction upon the hill side. The air of the plain below is supposed to conduce to perfect sobricty. It remains to be seen whether such is the effect, and whether the unwilling and insufficient steps adopted after long delay by the Jamun Government are such as to restrain those hereditary bandits from future depredations.

"Black mail is the object of this tribe. From long exercise of their lawless strength, they have aequired, as they conceive, a prescriptive right to certain payments from all the communities within a convenient eirele. Were the tract adjoining the boundary and including Deva and Battala to become British territory, I think that in settling it, it would be found uecessary to admit the right of the Chibs to the perquisites they have so long enjoyed from some at least of the villages inhabited by Jats beneath them. At present this right is fully admitted by some of those village proprietors, and I think it probable that had some of our border villages been included in the Jammu territory when the boundary was fixed, those villages would now be found making admissions of somewhat similar character. It is, however I believe only a right of might, and seems to diminish in strength with remoteness of locality. Thus at the foot of the hill feudatories called it maliki; further away in our territory it is styled mangni. The Chibs never claimed any such rights in the courts of this district; and even if they had, it is probable that although, as I have said, we might be unable to refuse to acknowledge thoso rights where they came under the denomination of maliki, yet we should have been fully justified in declining to award them as mangni. It is not therefore to be inferred from what I have said that the Chibs are in any way justified in their lawless proceedings by having been deprived of any rights, privileges or properties by the British Government. The tribe will be a source of considerable apprehension to the people on the boundary for some time to come. Payments are even now sub rosa made of mangui by border villages to secure immunity against outrage. Strong repressive measures are always necessary on the part of the Jamun Government, and should be strenuonsly insisted upou. Severer treatment than I fear that Government is inclined to employ, is sometimes required."

Chapter II.

History.

Their depredations

Chib black mail.

Chapter II. History.

Development since annexation.

586,414 in 1866, 746,880 in 1873, and is now 796,733. The revenue of the district at various periods is shown below:—

	LAND RE	VENUE.	Other Revenue.						
Year.	T.	Fluctua	Exc	isc.	Assessed		Miscel-		
	Proper.	ting.	Spirits.	Drugs.	Taxes.	Stamps.	Inncous.		
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.		
1849 1851-52	4,56,292 5,72,281	 2,775	3,065 2,612	875 1,020		1,719 6,234	8,204 80,410		
1861-62 1871-72	5,22,148 5,58,099	3,610 8,817	3,744 8,924	1,605 4,830	10,371	20,606 46,281			
1881-82 1891-92	5,85,539 6,42,598	6,226 3,807	9,575 15,482	4,341 4,866	10,785 23,438	82,863 1,13,474			

The Chib border under Native rnle.

But a far more striking example of the effect of British administration than any figures can afford is given by the following description of the state of the Jammu border, and the behaviour of the Chib villages who held it, which was written by Captain Mackenzie so late as 1859. The extract is long; but the state of affairs which it describes as existing is worthy of record.

"The chauki at Assar was located to try and check in some measure the raids of the Deva and Battála Chibs, as also the less formidable Chib community of Kuddala. These bands of marauders descrive separate notice. From time immemorial they have been the terror of the peaceably disposed inhabitants of the plains. They inhabit a cluster of large villages situated on the crest of the first low hills to the north of the district, about five miles from the Jammu territory. One of the cluster is the villages of Deva. It is the furthest east; the others four or five in number, studded over the face of the hill for a space of five miles, compose the village of Battála. The inhabitants are Hindu Chibs, numbering perhaps 5,000 souls. Safe in the strength of their position, they have ever levied black mail on the inhabitants of the plain below them, varying the practice hy an occasional raid upon some devoted village which was forthwith plandered of all it contained. The towns, even of Jalalpur and Gujrat were not safe. Little resistance was ever made by the victims. Only one village, Diláwarpur, opposed them. It is the head-quarters of zail Handa, the Chaudri of which, Muhammad Yar, was with his followers at constant war with them. His prowess is sung by the bard of the clan. He was, however, but poorly supported by the Government, and the efforts to curb their malpractices met with but desultory success, and were chiefly carried on by sudden onslaughts upon the defenceless and unguarded of either clan, rather than by any well-conceived measure of suppression. It was war to the knife of a guerilla nature, and the results were shown in heads and scalps rather than in pacification and tranquillity. The chaudri killed Chibs sufficient to make a chabutra (terrace) for the village rest-house of their heads, and for every new batch of heads a bit was added to the chabutra. It is the Sir Kathulla of the present day. But the chaudri died and defence continued on either side, the Chibs having generally the advantage. Twice did Maharaja Ranjít Singh attempt to curb them by burning their village and imposing fines-all to no purpose. With abundance of wood and stone at their doors, and all the advantages of a strong position with a submissive prey, it was not in the nature of things that a native Government should stay their malpractices or reform their ways.

times the usual quantity of milk. Stories are still told of the extraordinary friendships which grew up among the survivors of this famine, who clung together, sharing with each other everything available as food. In the autumn of 1842 great paropia or rain fell, and bájra and swánk are said to have come up spon-chalis, A.D. 1783. taneously. The refugees returned, and helped to prepare the ground for seed by hand labour. This famine was followed by great mortality from fever and ague, and a large proportion of those who had escaped starvation fell victims to disease. This famine is also called "The Great Famine."

Chapter II. History.

Sun

The second famine occurred in the spring of Sambat 1869, The Paiwála and lasted two years until the end of Sambat 1870. The country famine, A.D. 1815. had, however, somewhat recovered from "The Great Famine," and wells had been repaired, and the distress was not so great. The people from the rain tracts crowded into those protected by wells, and sought refuge among their connections and relatives. People removed temporarily to Kashmír, Gujránwála, and Siál-Grain reached four topás per rupee, or 8 sérs. It is therefore called the Paiwála; 4 topás = 1 pai.

The third famine took place in the autumn of Sambat 1883, A.D. 1831, and lasted during three harvests, to the autumn of famine, A.D 1831. 1889. No very great distress was felt, and people attribute their safety to the wells. Grain never was dearer than 6 topás, or 12 sérs. There was no exodus from the district, only into the well tracts from those dependent on rain. But this famine raged in Kashmir, and a great influx of people was the result, most of them only to die; many came to sell their children, who are still to be found in the houses of the kanjris. Before the ripening of the spring crop of Sambat 1890, a plant called Markan came up in great quantities; cattle lived on it, and the people themselves mixed it with their grain. The famine is still called the Markanwála Kál.

The Markanwala

The fourth famine was in Sambat 1917. Grain reached 6 or 7 topús, 12 or 14 sérs, per rupee, and this lasted one year; famine, A.D. 1863. there was some exodus, but assistance was given the people by employment upon public works.

The Sattarhawála

The whole country of the Chaj Doab, from the Jammu border to the junction of the Chenáb and Jhelam, formed in the district and subsefirst instance a single district, to which Mr. E. C. Bayley was appointed Deputy Commissioner. In June of the year of annexation, however, this enormous charge was broken up, and the southern portion of the Doáb (the kardáris of Miáni, Sáhiwál and half Kádirabad) were formed into a separate district having its head-quarters at Shahpur. In 1851 eight villages were transferred from Shahpur to Gujrát; and in 1855 further changes took place, 28 villages being made over to Sháhpur from the portion of the old Kádirabad iláka still attached to this district, and 41 villages received in exchange from the Miáni iláka of Sháhpur. Finally, in 1857, the Bajwat country, lying between the Tawi and the Chenáb, was made over to the

Constitution quent changes.

In 1891 the immigration from Kashmír was shown at 10,101 persons, of whom 3,062 were males and 7,039 females, as compared with the Return of 1881, when 10,787 persons enumerated in Gujrát were shown as born in Kashmír, of whom 4,372 were males and 6,415 were females.

Statistical
Immigration and omigran.

The figures below show the general distribution of the population by birth place.

Proportion per mile of resident Population.

							Тота	L Popul	ATION.
•		Born	in				Males.	Females.	Persons.
The District	,.,						964	925	946
The Province J dia Asia	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	990 1,000 1,000	978 1,000 1,000	985 1,000 1,000

The figures in the statement below show the population Increase and deof the district as it stood at the enumerations of 1855, 1868, crease of population. 1881 and 1891:—

			Census.		Persons.	Males.	Females.	Density per square mile.
					<u></u>			
Actuals	{	1855 1868 1881 1891	***	***	517,626 616,509 689,115 760,875	232,009 362,162	284,500 326,953	324 349
Porcentage	{	1881	on 1855 on 1868 on 1881		19·1 11·8 10·4		14.9	7.7

Unfortunately the boundaries of the district have changed so greatly since the census of 1855, that it is difficult to compare the figures; but it would appear that the total number of souls (no details of sexes are available) included in the district as it now stands according to the enumeration of 1855 was only 500,167; and if so, the increase between that enumeration and the one of 1868 was 23 per cent., or more than double that which took place in the corresponding interval between the enumerations of 1868 and 1881. The remarks already made upon the subject of emigration sufficiently explain this fact. Population has increased too fast for the means of subsistence, and the people have been compelled to leave their homes.

Chapter III, A. Statistical.

crease of population.

It will be seen that the annual increase of population per 10,000 between 1868 and 1881, has been 67 for males, 108 for females, and 86 for persons, at which rate the male population Increase and de-would be doubled in 103.7 years, the female in 64.8 years, and the total population in 80.9 years. In 1881 it was estimated that if the same rate of increase continued during the succeeding ten years the population would have been for each year in hundreds as shown in the following table:-

	Year	·.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
1881 1882 1883 1884 1885 1886 1887 1888 1889 1890 1891			 689,1 695,1 701,0 707,1 713,1 719,3 725,5 731,7 738,0 744,3 750,7	362,2 364,6 367,0 369,5 372,0 374,5 377,0 379,5 382,0 384,6 387,2	327,0 330,5 334,0 337,6 341,3 344,9 348,6 352,4 356,2 360,0 363,9

The actual increase has been more than was estimated by 10,000 persons, though the increase of females has been less than was estimated. In the previous census the increase in population was supposed to have been caused partly by increased accuracy of enumeration, tested by the proportion of males to population, which was 54.00 in 1855, 53.85 in 1868 and 52.55 in 1881; but which at the census of 1891 was 52.62, while the total population has increased largely during the ten years 1881-91, tho urban population has decreased though the number of towns remains the same. For the whole district the rural population shows an increase of 74,143 persons or 11.5 per cent. and the urban population a decrease of 2,383 persons or 5.9 per cent. This is probably due to the effect of the improvement of communications in drawing away the mercantile classes from the smaller cities to the great centres of commerce, and also to artisans, who are mostly trained in towns finding employment in places where demand for their services is greater than in their small native towns. The greatest decrease in towns is in Jalálpur (- 1,774); the special cause existing here is the decrease in the number of Kashmiris and to the fact that a new hamlet has been built within the mauza limits, but outside the limits of the Municipality. The population of individual towns at the respective enumerations are shown under their several headings in Chapter VI. Within the district the increase of population for the various tahsils is shown below:-

	/		Total pop		Percentage of population.				
Tí	rpsir	1855.	1868.	1881.	1891.	1868 on 1855.	1881 on 1868.	1891 on 1881.	C
Gujrát Khárian Phália	•••	 234,310 159,543 106,314	272,055 190,005 154,819	297,040 217,371 174,704	248,076		9·1 14·4 12·8		
Total D	istriet* -	 500,167	616,879	689,115	760,875	23.3	11.7	10.4	

Chapter III, A.
Statistical.

Increase and decrease of population.

Table No. XI shows the total number of births and deaths registered in the district for the five years from 1887 to 1891. The distribution of the total deaths and of the deaths from fever for these five years over the twelve months of the year is shown in Tables No. XIA and XIB.

Births and deaths.

The registration is still imperfect, though it is probably improving, but the figures always fall short of the facts, and the fluctuations to some extent correspond, allowing for a regular increase due to improved registration, fairly closely with the actual fluctuations in the births and deaths. The historical retrospect which forms the first part of Chapter III of the Census Report of 1881, and especially the annual chronicle from 1849 to 1881, which will be found at page 56 of that report, throw some light on the fluctuations. Further details as to birth and death-rates in individual towns will be found in Table XLIV, and under the headings of the several towns in Chapter VI.

· The figures below show the chief statistics of birth and death-rates since 1881, calculated on the population of that year:—

	RATIO OF BIRTHS PER 1,000 OF POPULATION.						males died 100 deaths	PER 1,	OP DE	PO-
YEARS.	Males.	Females.	Total,	Number of mal to every 100 born.	Excess of births over deaths per 1,000 of population.	Execss of deaths over the births per 1,000 of population.	Number of ma to every 100 of females.	Males.	Females.	Total.
1882 1883 1884 1885 1886 1887 1888 1889 1890	22:55 25:61 27:37 25:32 21:61 20:82 21:83 22:58 20:60 15:35	89°93 22°66 24°72 22°93 19°28 18°45 19°29 19°90 17°65 13°46	42'18 48'27 52'09 48'25' 40'89 39'27 41'12 42'48 38'24' 28'81	113.18 113.00 110.69 110.45 112.10 112.81 113.17 113.40 110.73	2.1	•••	113:42 112:01 108:40 107:60 105:20 108:87 108:08 107:42 109:29	24 26 26 25 28 28 31 78.96	21 23 26 26 26 29 29 32 80.03 27.30	21° 24° 26° 26° 26° 29° 31° 70° 47° 29° 30°

^{*} These figures do not agree with the published figures of the Census Report of 1868 for the whole district. They are taken from the registers in the District Office, and are the best figures now available.

Chapter III. A. Statistical.

Age, sex and civil condition.

The figures for age, sex and civil condition are given in detail in Tables VII and VIII of the Census Report of 1891. The number of sexes for each religion for the whole district and for tahsils, is shown in Table No. VII appended to the present work. The age statistics must be taken subject to limitations which will be found fully discussed in Chapter VII of the Census Report of 1881. Their value rapidly diminishes as the numbers dealt with become smaller; and it is unnecessary here to give actual figures, or any statistics for tahsils. The following figures show the distribution by age of every 10,000 of the population according to the census figures:—

			0—1.	12.	2-3.	3-4.	4—5.	0—5.
Males Females	•••	•••	355 386	260 284	282 295	292 309	8 3 9 326	•••
			5—10.	10—15.	15—20.	20—25.	25—30.	E0—35.
Males Females	***	•••	1,619 1,545	1,088 978	1,009 1,043	842 868	833 915	635 632
			35-40.	40—45.	45—50.	50 – 55.	55—60.	Over 60.
Males Females	•••	•••	60 7 683	376 385	485 481	220 194	380 336	393 337

The number of males among 10,000 of both sexes is shown below:—

Рорг	ulation	1.	 1853.	1868	1881.	1891.
All religions Hindús Sikhs Muhammadans	***		 · 5,400 	5,385 	5,255 5,338 5,658 5,238	5,263 5,212 5,569 5,262

The number in villages and towns was :-

-	Year.		Villages.	Towns,
1881 1891	***	•••	5,262 5,269	5,154 5,150

In the census, the number of females per 1,000 males in the earlier years of life was found to be as shown below. The figures for civil condition are given in Table No. X, which shows

the actual number of single, married, and widowed, for each

sex in each religion, and also the distribution by civil condition Chapter III, A. of the total number of each sex in each age period: -

Statistical.

				All religions.		Hind	lús.	Muhammadans.	
	Year of life.		1881.	1891.	1881.	1891.	1881.	1891.	
0—1 1—2 2—3 3—4 4—5				964 956 972 949 921	972 984 942 892 851	884 1,027 890 	1,020 900 936 891 879	975 949 983 	971 995 941 964 898

Age, 80X and civil condition.

Infirmities.

Table XII shows the number of insane, blind, deaf-mutes, and lepers in the district in 1891. The statement below shows the numbers for 1881 and 1891. It will be seen that the figures for 1891 show a considerable decrease under every head. Tables Nos. XII to XVA, of the Census Report of 1891 give details of the age and tribe of the infirm :-

Infirmity.			Actual numbers.		Proportion per 10,000.			
					1881.		1891.	
			1881.	1891.	Males. Females.		Males. Fomales.	
								
Insono Blind Deaf-mutes Lepers	•••		351 3,347 883 429	270 2,297 737 193	6 47 16 9	4 51 9 3	28 12 3	3 31 7 1

The figures given below show the composition of the European and Christian population, and the respective numbers who returned Eurasian population. their birth-place and their language as European :-

Details.	Males.		Females.		Persons.	
	1881.	1891.	1881.	1891.	1881.	1891.
European and Americans Eurasians Nativo Christians Total Christians	191 16 12	23 5 35	17 12 7	19 3 21	208 28 19	42 8 64
Total Christians	219	63	36	51	255	114
English Other European languages Total European languages	216 	24 2	31	22 1	247	46 3
Total European languages	216	26	31	23	247	49
British Isles Other European countries Total European countries	171 	11 2		6	177	17 3
Other European countries Total European countries	171	13	6	7	177	20

Chapter III, B. Social and Religious Life. European

Eurasian population.

But in 1881 the figures for the races of Christians, which are discussed in Part VII of Chapter IV of the Census Report, were very untrustworthy; and it is certain that many who were really Eurasians returned themselves as Europeans. and The figures for European birth place are also incomplete, as many Europeans made entries, probably names of villages. and the like, which, though they were almost certainly English, could not be identified, and were therefore classed as "doubtful and unspecified." The distribution of European. and Eurasian Christians by tabsils is shown in Table No. VII. The decrease of the European population in 1891 as compared with 1881 is attributable to the enumeration in 1881 of persons employed in construction of the railway.

SECTION B.—SOCIAL AND RELIGIOUS LIFE.

Domestic occurpeople.

Births, marriages and deaths, and the ceremonies which rences affect the belong to these domestic occurrences, affect in a very important degree the welfare and comforts of entire families, and deserve much notice. They are the events which draw most heavily on the pockets of rich and poor; for which they must borrow, if they have not the ready, cash. They throw into debt the young man starting in life and the old who are finishing. The manner of following the prescribed observances and the expenditure thus incurred, fix the local status of the house in village society.

Betrothal.

Among Jats marriages are generally brought about through the village barber, hajjám, or the bard, mirási, or by Brahmans, who are appointed agents, and are called lági. The father of the girl sends one of these to find a match for her, and, having found one, to ascertain further the age of the boy, his personal attractions and defects also; to make sure of the character, means and respectability of the family. When the lági has found a bridegroom to his satisfaction, he informs his employer; no expense attends this. Having heard the first tidings, the girl's father sends forth again one or two lágis, duly commissioned, to the father of the boy. By them are sent presents; these consist, among the poorest class, of eleven dried dates, chhuháráh, Re. 1 cash, and Re. 1 worth of sugar, shakkar. The middle classes, such as lambardárs and other well-to-do people, send eleven dried dates, Rs. 5 cash, 2½ sérs sugar, misri. The better classes, such as zaildárs, send twenty-one dried dates, five sérs of sugar, misri, The messenger departing finds out the houses of cash Rs. 21. the retainers of the father of the boy, the bard or barber, or Brahman, and informs him that the natah, betrothal party, has come from such a place. This reaches the ears of the father of the boy, who takes counsel with his relatives; and, if he accepts, feeds the messenger, who gets khichri, rice and dál cooked together. In the morning, having called together the relatives, the girl's messenger puts one date into the mouth of the boy,

and presents him with the rost and the money, &c. Tho father of the boy has then to distribute among his brethren Rs. 5, 10, 15 worth of sugar, shakkar, according to his means, giving to each houso half a ser or one ser. This custom is called bháje. The lági gets some parting present, As. 8, or Rs. 1 Ho must also give his own lágís somothing; to the юr 3. barber, bard and Brahman eight annas each; to the waterman, jkiwar, washerman and potter four annas each. middle class give double this. The upper class give double what the middle class give. The wives of the bards and the girls of the family collect and serenado the boy; the former receive a sér of grain each. This is called vel.

The day is fixed.

Chapter III. B.

Social and Religious Life.

Betrothal,

The day has then to be fixed; this is effected through the lágis; generally no prosent is sent to the boy's father; one of the middle class may send one piece of chunni, cloth worn by women, and a piece of ckápe worn by women, a red lungi-or turban, to the father of the boy. The upper classes send ornaments; the dur or earring, korhis, bracelet, has, a silver collar, chura, called in this country báhi, or light bracelet worn by women; five trewar or suit of cloths of three pieces each; a horse. The middle classes call this bhocha, the upper class tika, and say the tika has been sent. The father of the boy collects his brethren and fixes the day and the month, and receives the above presents, bestowing a parting gift upon tho dági, Re. 1; or among the upper class Re. 1 to a Brahman, Rs. 3 to a barber or bard. Among the lowest class the girl receives no present, but the middle class send her a piece of sálu, red cotton cloth, cash Re. 1; the upper class send the salu and cash For the wedding-day both families prepare the wedding necessaries 20 or 25 days before the wedding. Among the lower class the father of the boy sends to the girl's father a skein of red thread, dhága mauli ka, with a knot in it, as a token that the wedding is to take place on a certain day. The middlo class send two man, 160fts of gur, and the upper class send four man by the hands of their lágis, for distribution among their kinsfolk in neighboaring villages, and to give them notice of the coming event. This practice is called sending the gand. The lágis receive from four to eight annas at each house where they leave the gúr.

The fourth step is the anointing, tél charhána. One week before the marriage, the fathers of the pair give notice of the day screnading. for the anointing. In the afternoon the women of the brotherhood and the women of the bard assemble and sing at the houses of the boy and girl. They place each of the betrothed at their respective houses upon an inverted basket in the yard of the house; four women hold out a canopy of red sálu cotton cloth over his or her head. Then the tailor and washerman tie a skein of red thread, gánah on the right wrist. Then the women make a preparation of sweet-scented leaves pounded with the flour of gram, besan, and to this they add oil; with this they

The anointing and

Chapter III, B. Social and

Religious Life. The anointing and serenading.

anoint his or her body, rubbing the preparation well in. senior woman of the family first begins this operation. From that day until the marriage the betrothed do not work but get good food, and are said in common parlance to be mainyan para hua. At the anointing the poorer class have to distribute two man of wheat, boiled and called ghunguniyan, to the women of the brotherhood; the middle class distribute in the same way four man gur, the upper class seven man gur. The lágis have to receive Rs. 1, 2 or 5 according to the position of the family, but the Brahman never gets mero than Rs. 2. The women of the family have then to give the women of the bards one ser of grain per house. This is called vel. From this date until the day of marriage the girls of the family assemble every night at the house of the bride or bridegroom, and sing for an hour and a half. That sung at the bey's bouse is called ghorián, at the girl's, sohág.

The dyeing with hina.

The fifth step is the dyeing of the hands and feet with hina (menhdi lagána). The day before the marriage all the relations and acquaintances who have been invited by the gand assemblos. This is called mél. The women of the family and the wives of the bards again sing and dyo with menhdi the hands and feet of the pair. The Rs. 1 or 2 worth of menhdi is distributed to the The lágis again receive annas 8, Rs. 3 or 4.

The bath, the gartoilet.

The sixth observance is the garlanding with flowers, sehra landing and the lagana. On the wedding-day, at mid-day the potter's wife brings an earthen vessel, gharah. The women of the family and the wife of the bard carry this vessel, singing to the well; the waterman fills it; this is called the ghari gharauli. It is then taken up by the women of the Aráins, or gardeners, and brought by them to the house of the boy. The musalli or sweepers then prepare and bring a khárah or basket, turn it upside down, put the boy on it, and light a lamp under it; then the boy is bathed by the village servants with the water from the gharah, the whole brotherhood, male and female, standing Then the petter brings seven chhuniyan er earthen, saucers (with which the mouths of gharahs are closed); these are placed before the basket, and the boy jumps on to them and breaks them, this is supposed in some way to avert the evil eye. The lágis then receive two annas each: petter, sweeper, tailor, drummer or musician, gardener; but the waterman, barber, bard, Brahman, and washerman eight annas each the lower classes; the middle and upper classes The dirty clothes taken off the boy are taken give mere. by the barber as his perquisite. The tailor then a fresh gahnah, or skein of red thread, for the right wrist. The village banker or shepkeeper brings a séhra er fringe of long gilt threads, and the Aráin brings a similar string of flowers; both are tied upon the ferehead of the youth, the gold below, tho flowers above. He is then dressed in trowsers of gulbadan (a silk stuff), a sheet saffron coloured, a red or white turban,

and new shoes brought by the cobbler; presents are again distributed. The banker gets from Rs. 1-4-0 to Rs. 5, the gardener and washerman from 8 annas to Re. 1-4-0.

Chapter III, B. Social and Religious Life.

Then comes the receiving of the wedding presents tambol. A copper vessel is placed in the centre, called thál; by this or tambol. sits the goldsmith and the barber, and the recorder, being the banker or the mulla. Each of the relations gives, according to his means, in cash. The barber takes the gift, and hands it over to the goldsmith, who tests it and throws it into the copper vessel; the amount is then recorded. These presents vary from Rs. 1 to 5 among the poorest class, from Rs. 5 to 31 among the middle classes, from Rs. 7 to 51 among the upper classes. The larger sums are given by the nearest relations. The lágis again receive presents from Rs. 1 to 2, and the upper classes give sometimes Rs. 20 to the professional dancing girls. Then food is distributed, and the cost of the feast varies from Rs. 110 to Rs. 266 and Rs. 989 according to the position of the parties.

Wedding presents

The seventh stage is the marriage ceremony. When the The procession of marriage procession (barát) of the bridegroom reaches the the bridegroom and the meeting of the will go of the haid they got in the dairy or will go guest house. village of the bride they stop in the dairs or village guest-house, fathers, or some other open place; and in the evening, when they are ready to start for the dinner at the girl's father's house, the bard, barber and Brahman of the bride's family bring sugar (shakkar), and put it into the mouth of the bridegroom, whose father gives them Rs. 1-8, or 3 or Rs. 7. Then the two families arrange themselves with their respective guests, in two lines opposite each other in some open space. The two fathers then meet and embrace in the centre; this is called the milni. The upper classes at this juncture would let off Rs. 50 worth of fire-works. All then meet for dinner at the bride's house, and the barber of the family brings milk for the bridegroom, when he and the washerman get Re. I each. The barber then makes a dolah, or a small palanquin of kanah grass, and puts in it eight lamps made of flour paste. They call this the berah ghori. In this dolah the father of the bridegroom puts Rs. 1-4-0, 2 or 3, and the bride's lágís take this. Then the girls assemble and pour oil into a copper tray, thál, and put in it a katorah, or small copper vessel; this the girls hold down, and the bride-groom tries to get the katorah away from them. They play at this for half an hour; the bridegroom then puts Re. 1 into the tray, and the game is stopped. After the dinner the bridegroom's party return to the daira and sleep. In the morning the bridegroom's father takes to the girl's father's house, with a procession, the presents for the bride, in value ranging from the bride, and the Rs. 13 to Rs. 23 or Rs. 89 according to circumstances. The procession. girl's father keeps the clothes for the girl to wear, gives back the cash and half the other things, keeping half himself. upper classes would have professional dancers at this period, and pay them Rs. 20 or so. Then the father of the bridegroom gives again to the barber and bard of the bride's family Re. 1

The presents for

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Religious Life.
The reading of the

service.

each, and the girl's father gives the lágís of the bridegroom Rs. 2 each. Then the girl's family tie a rope to the leg of the bridegroom, when he is bought off by the father for Rs. 1-4-0 or Rs. 2 or 5. This custom is called pair pakrah. After this the bride is bathed. Then the uhlma or priest is called to read the marriage service, first to the bridegroom, who has to repeat the kalma, or belief, three times; he then visits the bride inside the house, who does the same. The priest comes out and sits by the bridegroom in the assembly; two men are appointed agents, vakil, on the part of the girl; they go to the girl, and tell her that her parents have given her to such and such a man; she whispers three times over that she is agreeable to the arrangements. The agents return, and the priest examines them as to where they have been. They reply that they are vakils, and have come from the daughter of so-and-so, who has accepted such-and-such a youth as her husband. This is done in public. The bridegroom is asked three times, and he admits that he has accepted such a girl as his wife. This is the marriage ceremony, nikah. The priest gets Rs. 1-4-0 or Rs. 2 or 5, the bard gets Re. 1, barber Re. 1, other attendants Rs. 4.

The dower.

Fees paid by both Farties

After the marriage the girl's father spreads the dowry out in an open space. This is called khat. The dowry consists generally of clothes, jewels, and furniture, the value of which will seldom be under Rs. 100, and may amount to a very large As these things are being opened out, the bard of the girl's family calls them out by name and description with a loud voice. The bridegroom's father then gives the sweeper Re. 1, potter Rs. 2, waterman Rs. 4, bard Re. 1, barber Re. 1, cobbler Rs. 2, Brahman Rs. 2, blacksmith Re. 1, carpenter Re. 1, washerman Rs. 3, the fakir of the takya Re. 1; the mulla of the mosque Re. 1, the halwai, sweetmeat-maker, Re. 1; the lambardars of the village then get Rs. 1-8-0, thánah patti, which they give to their bard; the pir gets Re. 1, the barber's wife Re. 0-8-0, the oilman Re. 1. The total of this is about Rs. 25; the 2nd class pay perhaps Rs. 59, the 1st class Rs. 129. After this the girl's father gives the barber and bard of the boy's family Re. I each as a parting present. The boy's father distributes to the poor Rs. 10, or, if of the middle class, Rs. 100. If he belongs to the upper class, he does the rátachar. The two families collect in the house of the girl's father, and the bards from neighbouring villages beg; they introduce them-selves as the bard of so-and-so, and get Rs. 2 or 3; a very large sum is spent thus by the bridegroom's father. The bride's father gives them one meal, and gives a few copper coins to every beggar.

The going off.

The girl is then placed in a doli or covered palanquin, and made over to the bridegroom's father, who takes her home. On arrival the *lágis* of the girl, who have accompanied her, receive Rs. 4 or 11 or 35, and are sent away (a zaildár would give Rs. 100), and then the family *lágis* receive Rs. 6 or 17 or 27, and

are sent away also. Everybody then returns home. The bride remains three days with her husbaud, and then returns to her mether's home. A year or two afterwards the bridegroom goes and fetches his bride home. This final bringing home of the bride is called mukláwah. Marriages are generally celebrated among the agricultural classes when the parties are approaching maturity, when the girl is 15 or 20 years of age, and the youth age, 18 or 22; sometimes, however, marriages are made at 8 or 10 years of age. Among the Khatris girls are married between 6 and 10. In the low-lands the girls appear to arrive at maturity soon, and some are mothers at 15 and even at 11 or 12. In the high-lands and bár the girls are later in arriving at womanhood, and are seldom mothers before they are 20. In the Phálián tahsil late marriages have hitherto been the rule, no doubt owing to want of means; this tahsil is poorer than either of the others. Thus the average expense of a wedding, biyah, among the three classes is from Rs. 165 to Rs. 545 or Rs. 2,300. The owner of a plough will not spend less than Rs. 165. The marriage of a son or a daughter is equally expensive. A poor tenant, farm or village servant, will content himself with the nikáh, or the reading of the service by a mullán at the house of the girl in the presence of a few friends.

Ou the birth of a son all Muhammadans make the same rejoicings and give the same presents. The first person to appear upon the scene is the priest, ulma, who whispers, the call to prayer, báng, into the infant's ear, and receives Re. 1. He is followed by the darwesh or servant of the mosque, who receives 4 annas. When the child is two days old, the mirási or bard makes and presents to him a small kurta or coat, in return for which he may receive from well-to-do people a horse, or cow, or buffalo. He is followed by the tailor of the village (the washerman), who brings a parrot of green cloth, with a number of green and red tassels appended. This is hung up from the centre of the roof of the room where the child is; he receives Re. 1. Then comes the sweeper (musalli), and makes a fringe of the leaves of the sirgs tree, and suspends it across the door of the house; he receives Re. 1. Among the Varaitch Jats and Chibs, whether Hindu or Muhammadan, it is the custom for the parohit of the family, a Brahman, to tie a skein of red thread on the right wrist of the child, for which he receives Re. 1. The carpenter must tender his congratulations also, and with them he offers a little wooden cart as a plaything; he receives Re. 1. The cobbler, believing that there is nothing like leather, makes a charm of that substance, a square ticket, which is hung upon the child's neck on payment of Re. 1. The potter presents a strange resemblance of a horse fashioned from the clay he handles, and receives Re. 1. The máshki, or water-carrier, corn-grinder, and baker in one, makes a bow and arrows of bamboo, and presents them, receiving Re. 1. The blacksmith forges an iron anklet as an ornament for the foot of the unfortunate infant, and receives his Re. 1.

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Social and Religious Life.

The muklawah.

Marriages at what age.

Expenses.

On the 7th day the child is named, and the head is completely

shaved by the barber, who receives sometimes a horse, or cow,

or buffalo. There are other expenses too on this day.

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Religious Life. The ceremony of

the 7th day. the 40th day.

sisters and paternal aunts have to receive a new suit of clothes each, and a little present of money. The fakir of the village takya and the village watchmen have to receive their little gifts The feast after of Re. 1 or less. After the 40th day all the fakirs of the village or the neighbourhood who come in, all relatives, and the village servants attached to the family, have to be well fed. The expense of this feast varies with the circumstances of each family.

Circumcision.

Sunnat or khatna karna, circumcision, is performed at ten years of age in the hot weather, and presents of gur are made.

Among Hindu Jats in the place of the ulma appears the

Custom among

parohit or pándah on the day of the birth, and writes the Hindús. horoscope, and receives his fee of Re. 1. Instead of the ceremonies of the 40th day, the Hindús have to feast their brethren among on the 13th. This is called the dhamán. Among the Chibs the Customs Chibs. mirási presents no coat, and the sweeper hangs no festoon of siras. The mother may not leave the room in which she was

confined until six days have passed.

Coremony of the 6th evening.

On the 6th evening the ceremony of the chhatti is performed. In the room where the mother is, a piece of the wall is whitened with rice flour, and in front of it a lamp is lighted, and over the lamp is hung a parchment sieve as a target; by this a woman stands. A boy of 10 or 12 with a bamboo bow shoots seven bamboo arrows into the sieve, in which they remain transfixed. The mother then rises and withdraws each arrow one by one. Whilst this is going on inside the house, the girls of that quarter of the villago and of the family collect and sing outside, and receive afterwards one or two measures, topás of bájra grain, which has been soaking in cold water since the morning, and is called bhangur; relations receive this also. This is a very ancient ceremony, and is observed with great care and superstition.

. Funerals.

As these are also one of the chief expenses of the agriculturist, it is advisable to notice them. They form a certain demand upon his profits, to cover which he must either save money or run into debt. On the death of an agriculturist, the mulla or priest is called to wash the corpse for which he receives Rs. 1 or 2 or 3 according to the position of the deceased; two cloths are used during the ablution, which are the perquisites of the mulla. The winding-sheet costs, yards gárah, Rs. 2-8, or 12 yards lattah or khása, Rs. 4; of this the mulla tears off enough to form a prayer The carrying to carpet, jái-nimáz at the grave. In the rest the body is the grave, and ser-wrapped, being tied in three places, and it is then placed on vice.

a bed. The corpses of the young are always covered with a

white pall; that of an old man, if of the upper class, with a

lungi or turban, value about Rs. 10, or a doshálah, a silk shawl, Rs. 20, or an imitation doshálah of Rs. 5 or 10. This becomes the perquisite of the mirási or bard after the burial. grave-digger receives Re. 1 and a meal. The service is read before the grave, the body being placed on a bed with its head to the north, and its face to the west and Macca. The body is always carried by the nearest relations. The funeral party forms a line facing the corpse, sometimes three deep; the mulla stands in front, and repeats a portion of the Kurán, calling down a blessing on the deceased. A Kurán and Re. 1 are then presented to the mulla by the heir, with the expression of a hope that they may be received as some atonement for the sins of the deceased. The body is then lowered into the grave; it is not placed in the centre of the grave, but a recess is hollowed out at the bottom of the western side of the grave along its In this recess the corpse is placed on its side whole length. with its face towards Macca. The recess is then closed in with bricks or clods and plastered over. Thus in filling in the grave no earth falls upon the body. Then bread and sweetmeats (nán-o-halwa) are distributed at the grave to the mullas and beggars; the latter get also copper coins; from Rs. 10 to 50 is spent thus. The mourners then return home. Among the Jats it is the custom for the bard who takes back the bed to the the fasting. house to set up a lament or wail, náhráh márna or, in the language of this district, dha márna. For this he receives Re. 1. On the day of a death neither the family nor any relations touch food. The second day the near relations cook dál, pulse and bread and send it to the deceased's home. The third day the heirs of the deceased distribute boiled wheat (ghungnián) to the relatives, servants and beggars, costing from Rs. 1 to 5. For forty days the mulla receives his evening meal gratis. On dues; the visits of the 41st day again a meal is distributed in the evening to relatives, condolence. mullas and beggars; from Rs. 5 to 20 are so spent. is sent of a death to relations in neighbouring villages. call at the house of the deceased (mukán karna). They have to be entertained at an expense of from Rs. 15 to 400 even, but each leaves a small present behind him of from Rs. 1 to 4 per family. The income is perhaps about one-third of the expenditure. About a year after, among the better classes, it is the custom again to distribute a meal to all relations, the mullu and the poor; from Rs. 50 to 100 is spent on this. This is an optional observance. Thus the average outlay on the funeral of an adult among the three classes is from Rs. 35 to 190 or 600. Upon the funeral of children little is spent. During Sikh rule the expenses attending all the above ceremonies much diminished for want of means; they are now increasing again with the prosperity of the people. So long as they are kept within Expenses increasbounds, and debt and difficulties are not the result, this can ing scarcely be regretted, as they promote good fellowship, and give means. all a feeling of contentment, and bring all to recognise the advantages of peace, and of the stable rule of a strong and moderate Government.

Chapter III; B. Social and Religious Life. The burial.

The lament and

The priest and his

The anniversary. expenses.

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Social and
Religious Life.
Games.

There is little merriment about the people, the struggle for existence is great, and leisure for amusements is generally wanting. This is especially noticeable in river villages, and in tahsíl Gujrát, where population is very dense: in the upland báráni country and in the bár, people are rather more lighthearted and cheery. The popular amusements, which are chiefly confined to youths and children are saunchi, a sort of prisoner's base, which played roughly often leads to personal injuries; kushti, wrestling; mughdar, using the clubs; and mungli, using the two-handed club. Of late years cricket, in some form or other, has become popular among the younger generation. Boys may be seen any evening playing in the neighbourhood of towns and large villages, and using for preference the roads as their play-ground. The eleven of the Gujrát School has more than once distinguished itself in matches with schools of other districts. Kite-flying, at certain periods of the year, is also an amusement of the younger children, and cock-fighting and quail-fighting of the elders: while in front of the village daira are generally to be seen stones and weights with which, when the elders assemble after the day's work is done, the young men display their prowess.

Food of the people.

The following note regarding the food of the people was furnished by the District authorities for the Famine Report of 1879:—

"The staple food grains of the people of the district are wheat, barley, jowár, bájra and maki; of the rabi erops, wheat and barley are sown in October and November, and cut in May and June; rainfall when the seed is germinating is most beneficial for the erops, also in February and March previous to the formation of grain in the ears. At the following periods injury is sustained by these erops from excessive rain: immediately after sowing, as the seed then becomes dislodged or rotted; secondly after the grain has ripened in the ears, at which time heavy rain causes the stalk to break; lastly, ufter the erop has been reaped, and is being threshed and stored. Of the kharíf erops, jowár, bájra and maki are sown in June and July, and cut in September and October; for these erops rains during June, July and until the formation of grain in the ears are most beneficial, and heavy rain during September and October, when the grain is ripening, is most injurious to these crops."

The average annual consumption of a family of five souls, including two children and an old person, was estimated as follows:—

For agrice	ulțuri	sts	•			•	Maunds.	Sérs.
Wheat		***	•••	•••	•••	•••	27	0
Bájra	***	•••	***	***	***	•••	10 .	0
Jowár	***			***	•••	•••	3	30
Barley	***	***	544	**1		***	5	20
								'
				•			47	10

For non-agriculturists --

Wheat 30 15

In 1870 Colonel Waterfield estimated the total consumption of food by the population of the district to be as follows:

Social and Religious Life. Food of the people.

					Maunds.
Grain used as flour	•••	•••	•••	•••	2,186,834
Other grain and vegetables	***	•••	•••	•••	296,301
		Total	•••	•••	2,483,185

The grain he described as wheat, Indian corn, jouár, bájra, mandal, barley and gram ground and eaten as bread, with mash, masur, moth and rice eaten unground. The vegetables most largely used were radishes, cauliflowers, onions, and cucumbers. He allowed three-quarters of a sér for each adult male, half a sér for each woman, and a quarter of a sér for each child.

The food of the agricultural population during eight months of the year consists mainly of bajra. During the remaining months it varies with the crops, that being used which is just harvested, and consequently cheapest. When the spring harvest first comes in, barley is eaten for about a month; after that during the next three months wheat or gram takes its place. But as the amount of gram produced in the district is small, this grain only comes into general consumption when the price of wheat rises very high. Jowár is, of course, eaten after the autumn harvest, but its nourishing and muscle-producing powers are considered much inferior to bájra. Made into cakes the above food grains are usually eaten with butter-milk or curds. There is a saying that an agriculturist who has bájra to eat and butter-milk to drink desires nothing else, which shows the importance attached to bájra as food. Besides the vegetables mentioned above, during the cold weather leaves of sarson are boilded and eaten at the principal meal.

Table No. VII shows the numbers in each tahsil and in the whole district, who follow each religion, as ascertained in the census, and Table No. XLIII gives similar figures for towns. The distribution of every 10,000 of the population by religions is shown below. The limitation subject to which these figures must be taken, and especially the rule followed in the classification of Hindús, are fully discussed in Part I, Chapter IV of the Census Report of 1881:—

,		1881.			
Religion.	Rural.	Urban.	Total population.	Total population.	
Hindu Sikh	128 8,931	2,778 147 7,068 6	1,051 129 8,816 4	952 250 8,796 2	

Religions.

Chapter III, B.
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Religious Life.
Religions.

General statistics and distribution of religions

	Sect.		Total.	Population.	
,	3661.		1881.	1891.	
Sunnís Shiáhs	•••	•••	998	993·1 2·7	1
				·	•

The distribution of every 1,000 of the Musalmán population by sect is shown in the margin.

Shiahs 1 2.7 Table No. IX shows the religion of the major castes and tribes of the district, and therefore the distribution by caste of the great majority of the followers of each religion. A brief description of the great religions of the Punjab and of their

description of the great religions of the Punjab and of their principal sects will be found in Chapter IV of the Census Report. The religious practice and belief of the district present no special peculiarities; and it would be out of place to enter here into any disquisition on the general question. The general distribution of religions by tahsils can be gathered from the figures of Table No. VII; and regarding the population as a whole, no more detailed information as to locality is available. But the landowning classes as a whole and the great mass of the village menials are Musalmán throughout the district, the Hindús and Sikhs being chiefly confined to the mercantile classes and their priests.

District fairs, melas.

There are 15 melas or fairs in this district, held at 14 different places, on the following dates:—

			•	
	D.	ATE.		Number of men
No.	Vernacular.	English.	Name of place.	collected.
1	lst Thursday in Húrh.	16th June	Shahdaulah, close to Gujrát.	500 fagirs are fed.
2	1st Shawál 10th Zilhij	4th January 13th March	Ditto. Ditto.	30,000.
3	1st Thursday in Húrh.	16th June	Gházi Khokhar, one mile from Gujrát.	2,500 faqirs are fed from collection of grain made at a topa per house.
4	19th Muharram, for two day.	21st April	Khángah Háfiz Hayát, six miles from Guirát.	
5	Ist Shawal	4th January	Lakhanwál, Khángah Bába	5,000.
6	10th Zulhij Every 12th yoar.	13th March	Shekh Burhan Sahib. Maghowal, Khangah Tawakal Shah.	2,500, of whom 700 faqirs are fed for two days.
7	5th Rabi-ul- awal, for two days.	5th June	Naushahra, Khángah Pir Muhammad Sacheyár Sáhib.	10,000; income Rs. 200; faqirs come from Jullundur, Amritsar and Jamuu.
8	lst Thursday in Maggar.	17th Novr	Pindi Miáni, Khángah Shah Kutab Shah.	2,000, and are fed; income Rs. 15 or 20.
9	1st Baisákh	11th April	Jelálpur, Sobatián, Pír Kaila Jogi.	10,000.
10	1st Muharram, one night.	3rd April	Khunan, Syad Jum- lah Shah Sahib.	1,000.

	Da	TE.		NT.		
No.	Vernacular.	English.	Name of place.	Number of men- collected.		
11	15th Λsauj	29th Septr	Killadár Mandar, Gurn Satrám Sáhib.	200.		
12	1st Shawal		Chakori, Sher Gházi	3,000; income Rs.		
	10th Zilhij	13th March		500		
13	13th Zilhij	16th March	Chak Jáni, Kharin, at the mosque of Sharfdín, Gujar.	3,000; income Rs. 25.		
14	1st Thursday in Hárh.	16th June	Prang, Khárián, Khankah Pír Hyát Kandáhári.	6,000, for thank- offerings		
15	1st Buisákh	11th April	77 70 1 0 2	10,000.		

Chapter III, B. Social and Religious Life. District fairs, melas.

And besides the above, which are connected with shrines and other quasi-religious edifices, there are more general secular assemblages. In Gujrát itself there are three holidays, where a large body of people come together: at the Dasehrah in Assu, September; at the Basant, Phaggan, February; at the Holi in Chetar, March; and at Jalálpur Jatán on tho 14th Chetar. March, a fair is held in Maha Nand's garden, and on the 1st Baisákh, 11th April, fairs are held on the Chenáb river at the Kathála and Wazírabad ferry, and that of Kádirabad in the Phália tahsíl. These fairs are all without any advantage, save to those who own or have charge of the shrines, but they might be ntilized. Fakirs collect and are fed, and sometimes dance, and the zamindars play at certain games, of which parkauri (a sort of prisoner's base) appears the favourite.

Guirát

Gujrát

Mission

As early as 1862, the operations of the Church of Scotland Punjab Mission, which had its head-quarters at Sialkot, were and Schools. extended to Guirát; and in 1865 the Reverend Robert Paterson was permanently located there; and there at once sprang into existence all the usual evangelising agencies. He was succeeded by the Revereud J. W. Youngson, about the year 1876, and he was in turn succeeded by the Reverend McCheyne Paterson in 1885. Under these three missionaries evangelistic and educational work has been regularly carried on. The number of native Christiaus is now stated to be 81, there are nine agents engaged in the evangelistic work in the district.

The Gujrát Mission School was opened in 1865 and at the close of that year there were 34 boys on the roll. In 1868, a School. Government grant-in-aid was given of Rs. 20 a month, and in 1873, the grant was increased to Rs. 50. In recent years the educational work has developed rapidly, the Gujrát Mission School was converted into a High School in 1891, and, shortly after the Middle Vernacular Board Schools of Dingah and Jalalpur were taken over by the Mission, and the teaching of English introduced into them. The School house at Gujrát,

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Social and Religious Life. Gujrát Mission

which is situated on the western outskirt of the city, was formerly the Municipal poor-house. It was for many years rented by the Mission, by whom it was finally purchased about 1880 for Rs. 1,200. Since that date it has been considerably enlarged, and at the end of 1892 the Mission High School was moved into a new building, erected at a cost of Rs. 7,200, the old building being retained for the lower classes. In all the Mission Schools, Bible instruction is regularly given by the Christian teachers, 10 in number, while the number of non-Christian teachers is 32. The pupils now number 956 boys; during the past year the fees amounted to Rs. 4,498 and the grant-in-aid to Rs. 2,506.

Mission School.

School.

A Girls' School supported by the Ladies' Association of the Girls' Church of Scotland and donations from Scotland was originally opened by Mrs. Youngson in 1876, but after a lingering career if was closed. It was started afresh by Mrs. McCheyne Paterson in 1886, and in 1888 it was taken over by the Ladies' Association of the Church of Scotland, who sent Miss Paterson as their first missionary. She carried on the School and began work in the Zanánás. Miss Mackichan arrived in 1889 and shortly afterwards Miss Paterson was compelled to resign from ill-health. The Girls' School has now 82 on the roll, of whom 5 earn Scholarships. The Government grant amounts to Rs. 80 per annum. In January 1891, Miss Stephenson arrived and has charge of the Zanána work. Fifteen houses are visited, with 42 pupils, all of whom receive Bible instruction, and 18 secular instruction. At the beginning of 1892, a Ladies' Mission House was completed for the residence of the ladies; and in 1893 the

Language.

Table No. VIII shows the numbers who speak each of the

staff was enlarged by the arrival of Miss Mary Mackichan.

Language.	Proportion per 10,000 of population.		
		1881.	1891.
Hindustáni Kashmíri Punjábi Pashtu All Indian languages Non-Indiau languages		19 9 9,968 1 9,996 4	7 3 9,986 1 9,997 8

principal languages current in the district, separately for each tahsil, and for the whole district. The figures in the margin give the distribution of every 10,000 of the population by language omitting small figures.

Education.

Table No. XIII gives statistics of education as ascertained at the census of 1891, for each religion and for the total population

	Education.		Popula- où.
		1881.	1891.
r B-	(Under instruction (Can read and write, (Under instruction (Can read and write,	323 5.0	134 458 7·6 15·6

of each tabsil. The figures for female education are probably very imperfect indeed. The figures in the margin show the number educated among every 10,000 of each sex according to the census returns.

Statistics regarding the attendance at Government and Chapter III, B. aided Schools will be found in Table No. XXXVII.

Captain Waterfield gives the statistics ascertained by him in 1866-67, as follows, excluding Government officials:—

"Among the children and youths under 18 years of age, sons of Muhammadans, only 2 per cent. are at School, among Sikhs 11, Mahájans 4, Brahmins 8, Khatrís 11, Rájpúts 4, Hindu Jats 16, Miscellaneous Hindús 8. Of the entire number of children and youths under 18 in the district, only 2'53, or 2½ per cent. are on the School lists. Through the Chandhris of the district."

He continues—

"I made enquiries regarding the numbor of individuals who could read and write well, and who could read and write a little. They gave me as the numbers of write well, and who could read and write a little. They gave line as the infiniters of the former, 850, and of the latter 33°28; total of the two, 4,178. Upon the males of the district this is 1°39 not 1½ per cent. Out of 3,207 children in the School, 1,824 are Muhammadans, 1,128 Hindús, 254 Sikhs, and no less than 2,563 are the children of agriculturists. I believe that in this settlement we have profited largely by the spread of education, limited though it has been. Not only were we able to employ a large number of youths as assistants to the patwer's and in the settlement we have profited largely be the spread of education. ment offices, but in most villages there are a few boys, sons of lambardárs and others, who are quite competent to explain any writing to the mass of the uneducated. This is already taking great power out of the hands of the pathwarfs and the people appreciate it. During the selection of the head lambardárs we were often glad to appeal to this test when doubting between candidates, and the sons of those who had formerly been leading men were often maintained, though minors, on the ground of their boing educated. This solution of the question appeared unanswerable to the agricultural mind There is every reason for supposing that education is fashionable in Gnjrát, and that it will spread if the schools are increased. The reason always given for the noneducation of children is the journey that they would have to make daily from their homes to distant village schools, and at all seasons of the year. There is only one school to every 22 villages: and there are large tracts of country with but few schools, more especially in the very centre of the district where the three tabsils meet."

In regard to the extract quoted, it is observed that the surmise is correct as to education in the district being popular; it was found, however, that several of the schools were very indifferent, the masters' salaries being too low to produce efficient teachers. In 1869 the number of schools was reduced from 64 to the present standard, the minimum pay of masters being fixed at Rs. 10 per mensem. A large number of schools would be acceptable to the people, but the funds do not admit at present of an increase being effected. In 1872-73 there were said to be only 593 indigenous schools in the district, with an attendance of 3,528 pupils. In his Census Report for 1881 the Deputy Commissioner estimates the number of indigenous schools then existing at 1,200. In 1870 Colonel Waterfield wrote: -- "There are no girls' schools, though there would be no "difficulty whatever in starting them, were funds available. "Both teachers and pupils are ready, and girls are seen reading at the mosques mixed up with the boys." A Gurmukhi girls' school was opened at Phália in 1876. It did not prove a success, and in 1882 was closed on the recommendation of the Inspector of Schools.

The following note on the present education of the district has been kindly furnished by Lála Ságar Chand, Inspector of Schools, Ráwalpindi Circle:

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Education.

"The schools, in accordance with the recent classification adopted by Gevernment, are of two kinds, public and private.

Pulio schools are those in which the course of study conforms with the standards prescribed by the Education Department or the University, and which are inspected by the Department, or present pupils at the public examinations held by the Department or the University. The term may be applied to Gevernment, Board, aided or maided schools.

Private schools are those which do not conform to the above definition, and include—

- (a) advanced schools teaching some oriental classical language;
- (b) elomentary schools teaching mainly a vernacular, or the native system of accounts;
- (c) roto schools teaching the words of some oriental scripture by rote.

Table No. XXXVII gives the statistics of the public schools for the five years ending on the 28th of February 1892 taken from the returns of the Education Department. The figures showing the number of schools at the close of 1890-91, however, do not tally with the census figures obtained in the same year.

Table No XXXVII A gives the statistics of the private schools in the district during the same five years. Only a small number of these have so far been brought under departmental influence by the liberal grant-in-aid allowed to them, but these include the most important of the whole number.

The following table shows the distribution of schools according to tahsils:-

Name o	f Tabi	sí),	Area.	Population.	Secondary Schools for Boys.	Primary Schools for Boys.		Indigenous Schools examined for grants.
Gujrát	•••	•••	533	308,861 /	6	20	1	7
Kharián	•••	•••	659	218,070	1	12	•••	14
Phália	•••		676	203,938	•••	13	1	9

From this table, however, these indigenous schools which were not examined for grants have been excluded, as their distribution by tabsils is not known. So far as this table may be taken as a guide, the head-quarter's tabsil, with 35 schools giving on an average one school to every 168 square miles of area, is the most advanced educationally, the Khárián tabsil, with one school to every 24 miles of area, the next in order, and the Phália tabsil, with one school to every 29 square miles, the last.

The distribution of the scholars according to creeds in public schools at the close of 1891-92 was as follows:—

		Cre	eds,			Boys, Secondary.	Boys, Primary.	Girls' Schools.	
Hindús			***	•••	•••	•••	174	1,512	` ***
Sikhs	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••		37	326	•••
Muhammad	ans	***	•••	***	***		179	2,897	108
Others	•••	•••	***	,•••	•••	•••	•••		****

The cerrospending figures for 1887-88, the first of the five years compared in the annexures, were as follows:—

,	eds.			Secondary Schools for Boys.	PrimarySchools for Boys.	Girls' Schools	
Hindús Sikhs Muhammadans		•••	 •••	::: :::	166 - 31 147	1,191 257 2,361	

Of the seven Secondary schools at the close of 1891-92, two were Anglo-Vernacular High, the same as at present, and the rest Middle schools. Of the latter two were Vernacular and three Anglo-Vernacular. The demand for English has very much increased within the last five or six years, in so much that were it not for the high rates of fees charged in English schools, they would be flooded with scholars. As it is, the accommodation is growing everywhere insufficient.

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The High schools are both at the district head-quarters. One is nnder the management of the Gujrát Municipality, and was formerly called a Government school, being under the direct management of the Education Department. In 1886, however, all schools under the direct control of the department were, with the exception of the Normal schools, and the Model schools attached to them, made over to Local Bodies, sufficient funds being at the same time localized to cnable municipalities to carry on the schools. The other High school is under the management of the Rev. Mr. Waugh. It is merely the High department of the Scotch Mission School in Gujrát city, and was opened in the month of June 1891. This part of the school is unaided, while the Middle and Primary departments of the institutious receive aid from the Provincial revenues, hesides a small grant of Rs. 60 a year from the Municipality. The grant to the school from Provincial revenues at the close of 1891-92 amounted to Rs. 1,399. As funancially the High department has a different status from the rest of the school its two parts of the institution count as separate schools.

The town of Gujrát also contains an Islámía school of the middle grade, the Primary department of which, nutil last year, received aid as an indigenous school. The other Secondary schools are at Dingah, Jalálpur Jattan, Knnjah and Khárian; of these the first two are Mission, and the last two District Board schools. Dingah and Jalálpur, however, were also District Board, the former until 1889-90, and the latter until 1890-91, when they were handed over to the Scotch Mission.

It has been stated above that the rates of tuition fees in the Anglo-Vernacular schools have been raised very high during the last few years. In 1886 when the Education Code came iuto operation, progressive rates of tuition fees were laid down for all Government, Board, and aided Anglo-Vernacular schools until they should attain a certain maximum, and under these successive enhancements, the fee collections went on increasing, until at the end of 1891-92 the amount realized in the Gujrát Mnnicipal Board School came to Rs. 3,960 against Rs. 2,450 before localization, and in the Scotch Mission School at Gujrát to Rs 1,567 against Rs. 579. The rates for Vernacular schools are fixed and are much lower than those for Anglo-Vernacular schools. They rauge from one anna in the infants' class to eight annas in the third middle, but even these rates are much higher than those formerly in force, which were merely nominal. The rates for aided schools are 25 per cent. below those prescribed for Government and Board schools.

As in other districts agriculturists pay no fees in the Primary departments of Government, Board and aided Vernacular schools, and only half rates in the fourth and fifth classes of the Primary departments of Anglo-Vernacular schools. In the Secondary departments of schools no concession is shown to them.

On the score of poverty 10 per cent. of the total number on the rolls receive gratis education in Primary schools, or in the Primary departments of Secondary schools, and 5 per cent. in the secondary departments of schools.

All the Secondary schools in the district have Boarding-houses attached to them for the convenience of boys from distant villages, and these institutions are provided with the necessary establishments of servants and furniture.

The number of Primary schools for boys rose from 39 in 1887-88 to 46 at the close of 1891-92. Of these, three (i.e., one in each tahsíl) were zamíndári schools intended especially for the education of zamíndári children. The course of study in them is different from that pursued in ordinary Primary schools. The number of scholars rose from 2,518 to 3,700.

The number of girls' schools at the close of 1891-92 was three, of which two were Board, namely those of Phália and Kunjah, and one aided belonging to the Scotch Mission at the district head-quarters. They are all Persian-Urdu, and the number is still the same. There is considerable room for development in the direction of female education.

The indigenous schools declined from 965 in 1887-88 to 502 in 1891-92, and the scholars fell from 6,184 to 5,795. The number of schools has remained pretty constant since 1888-89 except in 1890-91, when it was suddenly reduced to about

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56 per cent. of the number in previous year. This is not easy to account for, except on the supposition that a large number of schools were not registered in that year. The figures are based on the returns furnished by the patwari. The drop in the numbers of schools from 965 in 1887-88 to 515 in 1888-89 is due to the fact that in the latter year Government ordered that schools with less than six schools should not be returned.

As stated above a number of indigenous schools have been brought under the grant-in-aid system, with the results that there has been a great increase in the number of scholars. The grant-in-aid rules for schools of this class are very liberal.

A fair degree of attention is now paid to discipline and physical training in public schools. Two itinerant gynnastic masters have for some years been employed by the District Board, they go round from school to school, teaching the boys drill and other exercises. In the schools at the district head-quarters the ordinary masters attend to this part of the boys' training. Cricket is played in the larger schools, and some years ago, the Gujrát Municipal Beard School team was famous for its preficiency in this game throughout the prevince.

Character and disposition of the people.

The physical character and disposition of the people are thus described by Captain Mackenzie:—

Peculiarities of "The distinctness of variety in the physiognomies and physique of some of physiognomy and the Hindu classes above noticed is remarkable. The Khatris, and amongst physique amongst them the Arorás, the Labánás, and the Bahrúpiás, are each unmistakable in appearance, and differ markedly from each other and from the rest of the community. Thus, the Arora differs from the common Khatri in his short thick-set square form; the Labána is a large, well-built, shrewd, though rather heavy looking man; while the Bharúpia is generally spare, lively, and geod-tempered. The same wide diversity of appearance is not observable among the Musalmáns, though they too present characteristic differences. The agricultural clusses

square form; the Labána is a large, well-built, shrewd, though rather heavy looking man; while the Bharúpia is generally spare, lively, and good-tempered. The same wide diversity of appearance is not observable among the Musalmáns, though they too present characteristic differences. The agricultural clusses taken as a whole are all fine men of large build. Though not the tallest, the Chibspossess the greatest strength and powers of endurance. Their mere muscular development is generally admitted. Gondals are vory large, powerful-looking men, and are reputed as brave as they are athletic. Could they be induced to take services they would make fine soldiers.

General character.

"Although the population may be said to be almost wholly Muhammadan Islamism is exhibited in only a very imperfect form. What may be called social roligien is strong enough, but the proselytes of 300 years have never entirely forsaken the customs of their old faith, and still, in many respects, abide by thom. Although, therefore, every village has its mesque, family parchits (at least among the Jats) are not rare, and, while acknowledging the Sharah and solemnizing marriages according to the rites of the Korán, Bráhmans are not uncommonly made the agents in arranging betrothals. Marriages between persons of the same clan are by the Jats deemed improper; so also the Hindús. They hold thomselves free from many of the burdensome ebservances which appear in so great measure to constitute Hindnism in Hindustan. Both classes are, in their mntnal ignorance, drawn much more towards each other, and, except when a cow is killed, or such like outrage committed upon the feelings of either, they Generally speaking, I think the people are a manly race. live together in peace. They are extravagant and imprevident, and their sense of merality is extremely blunt. To protect a thief or a murderer is a virtue; to commit a cattle-theft is, in the lower parts of the district at least, the test of manhood and merit. Still there is, I think, much to like and hope for. In reasonable intelligence they are I believe, certainly superior to the population eastward of this Doub. fond and ambitious of distinctions of rank. I do not consider them very litigious or quarrelsome; and, out of court at least, in their dealings with each other, I believe them generally faithful and true to their engagements."

Colonel Waterfield wrote:—"I believe the entire popula"tion to be thoroughly loyal and well affected, and undisturbed
"by outside influences; and, if occasion should ever require it,
"I have no doubt that 600 staunch well-mounted yeomen
"might be turned ort in fifteen days, under the sons of their
"zaildárs, to heartily maintain the cause of law and order."

There is little to add to what has been written above. loyalty of the population is unquestioned. The people are lawabiding and obedient. Their standard of intelligence is not They are extremely litigious and are daily becoming most distrustful of one another. Where formerly parties were ready to have their cases decided by arbitration, they will now seldom agree in decision by such method, and when once they have engaged in a law suit they are not satisfied until they are ruined or are unable to carry it any further. Religious disputes between Hindús, and Muhammadans happily are rare, and when they occur some special circumstance is the cause, Pindi Bahauddin is the only village where such has occurred of late years.

Heinous crimes have never been very rife in the district, and between the character of crime of to-day and that of the first year of our rule there is but little difference apparent. The more beinous offences of murder and highway robbery however, that did occur in the earlier days of our administration were of a character of wilder recklessness and greater lawlessness than is apparent from observation of crime in the district now. The Pabbi was a noted haunt of highway robbers who scrupled not to murder, and thaggi was discovered at work. A case of this latter description occurred in 1849, in which a great number of men were tracked and arrested as accomplices from Fatteligarh and Multan Mr. Bayley's energy, however, and that of the to Pesháwar. Thaggi Department subsequently, made this last case of this kind, and the officers of the Thaggi Department afterwards (in 1852) declared that thaggi in the Panjab was confined to Mazhabi Sikhs. In 1855 a case of sattî occurred in the village of Sahoti in Bajwát (since transferred to Siálkot). The sacrificed woman's son was adjudged an accomplice and instigator, but otherwise it was concluded that the act was one entirely of self-will. Cattlestealing is chronic in the lower part of the district in and adjoining the $b\acute{a}r$, where as usual the thieves are incorrigible, and their practices uncurable. Gondals are the chief practitioners. Tables Nos. XL, XLI and XLII give statistics of crime; while Table No. XXXV shows the consumption of liquors and narcotic stimulants.

It is impossible to form any satisfactory estimate of the wealth of the commercial and industrial classes. Table No. of the people. XXXIV shows the working of the income tax since its imposition: for the year 1891-92 the incidence per 1,000 of population was Rs. 30-8. The average incidence per 1,000 of population was for the three years 1880-81 to 1882-83 Rs. 13-7, and for the three years 1883-84 to 1885-86 Rs. 15-6. The average incidence per 1,000 of population for the years 1880-86 was Rs. 14, and the average number of persons assessed was 1.0 per 1,000 of population. In the enquiry made in 1888 regarding assessment of income tax, Gujrát was ranked 28th in order according to percentage of agricultural to total population among the Panjab districts. Its order according to commercial position was 22nd

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Crime.

Poverty or wealth

Chapter III, C.

Tribes, Castes, and Leading Families.

of the people.

and its estimated order for incidence of income tax was 26th. All these figures show that the commercial wealth of Gujrát compared with other districts must be rated low. It may be said generally that a very large population of the artisans in the Poverty or wealth towns are extremely poor, while their fellows in the villages are scarcely less dependent upon the nature of the harvest than are the agriculturists themselves, their fees often taking the form of a fixed share of the produce; while even where this is not the case, the demand for their products necessarily varies with the prosperity of their customers. The circumstances of the agricultural classes are discussed in Section D.

SECTION C.—TRIBES, CASTES, AND LEADING FAMILIES.

Enumeration by tribes.

Table No. IX gives the figures for the principal castes and tribes of the district, with details of sex and religion, while Table No. IX A. shows the numbers of the less important tribes. Many of them are found all over the Panjab, and most of them in many other districts, and their representatives in Gujrát are distinguished by no local peculiarities. the leading tribes, and especially those who are important as landowners, or by position and influence, are briefly noticed in the following sections, and each caste will be found described in Chapter VI of the Census Report of 1881. The statistics of caste at that census were not compiled for tabsils, at least in their final form. It was then found that an enormous number of mere clans, or sub-divisions, had been returned as castes in the schedules, and the classification of these figures under the main heads shown in the caste tables was made for numbers for each tribe are not entered.

Distribution tribes.

districts only. Thus no statistics showing the local distribution of the castes and tribes are available for 1881. In the schedules of the census of 1891, the numbers for each caste or sub-division are separately shown by tahsils, but the total The tribal map by appended to Captain Waterfield's Settlement Report shows how the principal tribes occupy large unbroken tracts, each generally consisting of one description of land: Gujars in the rain tracts, Jats in those irrigated by wells, Gondals in the Bar, Chibs and Awans in the northern corner on the slopes of the Pabbi hills. The upper corner of the Khárián tahsil shows a strong sprinkling of Awans, Chibs and miscellaneous Jats, with a few Hindu and Khokhar villages. They are socially connected with the Jammu territory adjacent to which they lie: in like manner the eastern corner bordering on Bajwat has an edging of Khokhar and Hindu villages; the western and southern portion of the district is occupied almost entirely by the great Jat tribe, and its four major sub-divisions, the Waraitch Jats established on the richest and most favored lands; Tarárs and Ráujhás on the low well-irrigated, but so far as soil is concerned, intrinsically poor land of the Phália

tahsíl; the cattle grazing Gondals on the strong highlands of the $b\acute{a}r$. The two grand divisions of the district is into Jatátar and Gujar, the country of the Jats, and the country of the Gujars. The Gujars hold the high central plateau up to the border of the $b\acute{a}r$, consisting of lands of poor soil dependant entirely on the rainfall. The agricultural importance of the tribes. principal tribes and clans, as ascertained by a settlement census in 1866 is shown below.

Chapter III, C.
Tribes. Castes,
and Leading
Families.
Distribution by
tribes.

Statement showing the relative agricultural importance of each tribe. (Settlement Census 1866).

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
	or		s, s,				Agr	ICULTURI	STS.
No.	Sub-Collectorate tabsfi.	Name of prodominent tribe in each tahsil.	Number of villages.	Gross area,	Cultivated area.	Assessment,	Proprietors.	Cultivators.	Total.
1 2	(Jat, Waraiteh Do., miscellaueous	143 103	115,103 49,290	80,565 35,972	110,367 46,979	7,898 3,785	5,513 2,630	13,441 6,415
		Total of Jats	246	161,402	116,537	157,346	11,683	8,173	19,856 -
3 4 5 6	Gojaar.	Gujar, Kathanah Do., Chechi Do., Chúhán Do., miscellaneous	78 18 12 89	66,533 10,254 6,814 49,479	41,964 7,846 3,456 38,333	39,466 8,019 4,551 26,792	2,865 599 335 2,778	3,192 516 543 3,812	6,057 1,115 878 6,590
		Total of Gujars	197	133,080	91,599	77,878	6,577	8,063	14,640
7		Miscellaneous castes	110	58,816	39,296	37,032	4,612	2,874	7,486
	<u> </u>	Total	553	356,328	247,432	272,206	22,872	19,110	41,982
1 2 3 4		Gujar, Kathanah Do., Chechi Do., Chuhán Do., miscellaneous	56 21 21 150	55,257 12,965 21,513 107,987	26,989 7,365 11,756 58,662	21,555 5,825 8,920 50,100	1,608 714 1,235 5,841	2,225 355 1,044 4,363	3,833 1,099 2,279 10,207
	IAN.	Total of Gujars	248	197,722	101,772	86,400	9,431	7,987	17,418
5 6 7	Килигам.	Awán Chib Miscellaneous	51 45 199	30,211 44,243 110,286	15,280 17,830 58,273	11,733 11,088 48,106	2,002 1,910 7,177	1,456 1,620 3,914	3,458 3,500 11,091
		Total miscellancous	295	184,740	91,383	70,927	11,119	6,990	18,109
	U	Total	543	382,462	196,155	157,327	20,550	14,977	35,527
1 2 3 4 5	Рильти.	Jat, Tarar Do., Gondal Do., Ránjah Do., Waraiteh Do., miscellancous	82 52 29 24 57	118,054 89,412 56,799 36,048 66,294	48,918 25,755 18,018 16,207 29,546	45,176 23,596 14,801 17,381 29,217	3,875 3,237 1,358 1,535 2,918	1,844 772 824 491 1,218	5,719 4,009 2,182 2,026 4,166
	HH J	Total of Jats	241	366,607	138,444	130,171	12,953	5,149	18,102
		Miscellaneous	90	102,557	29,794	29,384	2,958	1,204	4,162
	;	Total	334	469,164	168,238	159,555	15,911	6,353	22,264
		GRAND TOTAL	1,430	1,207,954	611,825	589,088	59,333	40,440	99,773

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Tribes, Castes, and Leading Families.

Distribution of villages by tribes and ownership.

The distribution of villages by ownership among the tribes and sub-divisions is given in the following statement which has been prepared from the geneological trees showing owners:—

				-	Number of villages.						
Tribe	or su	b-divi	sion.		Tahsíl Gujrát.	Tahsíl Khárián.	Tahsíl Phália.	Total District.			
Waraitch			•••		150	5	25	180			
Gondal	•••	•••	•••		2		48	50			
Tarár			•••		3		80	83			
Ránjah	•••	***	•••		3		28	31			
Miscellane	ous Ja	ts	•••	•••	85	109	53	247			
Gujar Khat	hanal	١	•••		74	55	3	132			
" Chec	hi	•••		***	14	25	•••	39			
" Chub	lán	,,,	•••	***	13	20	2	. 35			
" Kasá	na	•••	1,4	•••	3	5	3	11			
Miscellane	ous	•••	•••	•••	91	148	7	246			
Khokhar	•••	•••	***	***	18		11	. 20			
Awán		•••	,	•••	6	47	2	55			
Miscellane	ous Ri	ijpúts	•••	•••	21	12	4	37			
Sayad	•••	•••	•••	•••	15	. 9	20	4.1			
Khatri	•••		•••	•••	8	5	7 '	20			
Pathán	•••	•••	•••	•••	1	6		7			
Mughal	•••	•••			7	11	4.	22			
Lohár	***	•••	•••		7	5		12			
Labána		•••	•••		6	1		7			
Chib	•••	•••				44		44			
Brahman	•••	•••	•••	•••	2	4		6			
Bahrupia		•••		•••	8		2	10			
Bhatti	•••	.,,	•••	•••		6	4	10			
Others	•••	•••	•••	•••	9	26	11	. 46			
Governmen	ıt proj	perty	•••			2	15	17			

Distribution of villages according population.

A further statement which has been prepared from village census returns of 1891 is given below. This shows the

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distribution of persons in villages by tribes and population. The predominant tribe in the statement is, that containing the greatest number of persons, the predominant tribe in the previous statement was, that which owned the largest amount of land in the village:—

Number of villages with one predominant tribe.

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Distribution of villages according to population.

Pr	edomi	inant i	ribe.		Gnjrát.	Khárián.	Phália.	Total Distriet.	
Gujar	•••	•••	•••	_	171	24)	. 18	430	
Jat ě					206	143	138	487	
Aráín	•••	•••	•••	•••	12	10	12	24	
Awán	•••	•••	•••	•••	5	46	3	54	
Rájpút		•••	•••	•••	14	43	87	144	
Mughal		•••	•••		5	12	4	21	
Khatri	•••				. 11	6	17	34	
Lohár		•••	•••		6	6		12	
Sayad	•••	•••	•••		9	5	12	26	
Labána	•••	•••	•••		6	5		7	
Máchhi			•••		1		1	2 5	
Khokhar	•••		•••		1 5			5	
Pathán	•••	•••	•••		1	2	1	4	
Farkhán		•••	•••		1	3			
Bhatti	•••	•••	141	•••	1		1	4 2 2 6	
Biloch		•••	•••	•••			2	2	
Shekh			•••		•••		6	6	
Shakkar			•••		1	i	•••	1	
Kashmíri	•••	•••	111	•••	1		,,,	1	
Teli	•••	•••	•••	•••		1		1	
Kaka Zai	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	1	***	1	
			Total		456	520	292 .	1,268	

The combination of tribes in other villages is shown in the statements given below:—

Tribes.		Gujrát.	Khárián.	Phália.	Total District.
Jats and Gujars ,, Khatrís ,, Aráíns ,, Rájpúts ,, Sayads ,, Khatrís and Aráíns ,, Brahman ,, Others		1 12 11 4 7 5 1	6 2 7 1	 20 2 7 3 1	7 34 13 18 10 5 3
Total		50	16	33	99
Gujars and Awáns ,, Jats ,, Aráin ,, Sayad {:, Others		4 1 6 2 11	 6 1 3 3	 	4 7 7 5 14
Total	<i>.</i> ····	24	13		37

Chapter III, C. Tribes, Castes,	Tribes			Gnjrát.	Khárián.	Phália.	Total
and Leading Families.						-	District.
mnlation.		•••	•••	6 10 5 10	 1	 1 1	7 11 5 12
		Total		31	2	2	35
	Khatrís and Sayads Jats Jats and Aráíns Others	•••		2 12 5 2	2	. 20 	3 34 5 5
		Total		21	5	21	47
	Labánás and others	•••	•••	4	l	;	4
	Khokhars and Sayad Aráins	ls	•••	3 1			3 1
		Total	•••	4	•••		4.
	Rájpúts and Gujárs Jats Others	•••	•••	3 4 4	7	7	3 18 4
		Total	•••	11	7	7	25
,	Awáns and Gujars Others	•••	•••	4 2			4. 2
		Total	•••	6			6
	Mughals and others	***		4			4

Hindús.

Hindús and Sikhs together constitute about 12 per cent. of the total population of the district. The principal tribes under which persons of these religions were classed in 1891 are—

Hindris-

Hindús					
	Jat	•••	•••	•••	2,327
	Brahman	•••	•••	•••	8,226
	Khatri		***		16,574
	Bhátia	***	•••		1,176
	Arora · .	1.1	***	•••	18,252
	Labána	•••	•••		5,056
	Chuhra		••• /		4,706
	Jhínwar	•••	•••		3,983
	Sunár	•••	•••	•••	4,861
8ikh					
	Khatri	•••	•••	,,,	2,386
	Bhátia	•••	١	•••	1,824
	Arora	,,,	•••	•••	7,997
	Chuhra	100	•••	•••	1,623
	Bahrupia	***	***	•••	1,201

The tribes which deserve special notice are Arora, Khatri, Brahman, Labána and Bahrupia.

No sub-division of Arorás is shown in the census of 1891; at the previous census of 1881, out of a total of 23,964 persons 9,593 were returned as Uttaradhi and 11,771 as Dahra. Arora is the small village shopkeeper, he seldom cultivates, he is thrifty in his habits and grasping in his dealings. character given to the tribe in the Census Report of 1881 fully applies to Arorás of this district, and may be quoted :- " He is "commonly known as a kirár, a word almost synonymous with "coward, and even more contemptuous than is the name Bania, "in the east of the province. The word kirár, indeed, appears "to be applied to all the western, or Panjábi traders, as distinct "from the Bania of Hindustán. But Arora is the person to whom "the term is most commonly applied, and Khatris repudiate the "name altogether as derogatory. The Arora is active and enter-"prising, industrious and thrifty. In appearance he is short "and thick-set."

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Arora.

Khatris are the principal owners in 20 villages; in 34 villages they are the main tribe as regards population, and in 47 other villages they are one of the main tribes, and are principally found combined with Jats. Khatris are shown in the census as both Hindús and Sikh, the latter being almost without exception residents of the large towns, as a rule they are non-agriculturists; in the majority of cases in which villages are owned by them, cultivation is carried on through tenants. But there are some exceptions, the principal being in village of Bahlolpur near the north-east corner of the district. The Khatris of this village allege that they were settled here by the Emperor Bahlol Lodhi of Delhi, who granted them as much land as a horse could travel round in a given time. They are now entirely devoted to agriculture, and consider that to relapse into trade would be a degradation. They are also occasionally found as tenants, principally in villages of the Phália tahsíl, -an instance of this is found in the village of Wasu.

Khatris.

Brahmans are the principal owners in six villages, they are generally non-agricultural; they are nowhere found in large numbers and except in social relations are of no importance.

Brahmans.

Bahrupiás.

The Bahrupiás are Sikhs, and in the more southern districts of the province are known as Mahtams. According to their own account they are of miscellaneous Rájpút descent. Their ancestors, they say, accompanied an expedition, raised in Central India during the time of Akbar, for employment against the Patháns upon the north-west frontier; but the force being broken up, they settled in the Panjab. They are divided into three clans, having the sounding Rájpút names of Rathor, Chuhán and Panwár, the families of which are found side by side in the same village, yet retaining the tribal distinction. They are principally located in this district on the banks of the Chenáb, where grants were made to them by Sirdár Jodh Singh of Wazírabad. They now own 10 villages. Among the Sikhs, their assertion of Rájpút origin is divided; they are considered

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Bahrúpiás.

of low caste, and are not allowed to assume a position of equality with other Sikhs of respectable Hindu origin. They have nothing probably, but their name, in common with the Bahrupiás or professional buffoons of Hindustán, who are reputed to spring from the intercourse of a Mallah or boatman with the widow of the inferior Brahman tribe of Gungaputr. The Bahrupiás of this district are very expert in all trades in which grass and other alluvial products can be brought into use; tolerable husbandman, and almost amphibious. They are to be found on the banks of the Chenáb, Rávi and Sutlej, but never further to the west than their settlement in this district.

Labánás.

The Labánás have in the census of 1891 been classed as Hindús. They were formerly entered as Sikhs, and they still generally use the affix Singh in giving their names. They own seven villages in the district, they do not usually engage in trade, and freely take service in the army. They are a well-built people, good cultivators, and very tenacious of their rights. In addition to the villages in which they are recorded as proprietors, they hold land in several others as occupancy tenants. They are only found in the north-east of the district. They are thus described by Captain Mackenzie:—

"Tho Labánús aro also a peculiar people, not existing I believo anywhere west of this district. Their status among Sikhs is much the same as that of the Bahrupiás. They correspond to the Banjárás of Hindustán, carrying on an extensive trade by means of large heads of laden bullocks. Latterly they have taken to agriculture, but as an additional means of livelihood, not as a substitute for trade. As a section of the community, they deserve every consideration and encouragement. They are generally fine, substantially built people. They also possess much spirit. In anarchical times when the freaks or fends of petty governors would drive the Jats and Gujars to seek a temperary abiding place, away from their aucesteral village, the Labánás would stand their ground, and perhaps improve the opportunity, by extending their grasps over the best lands of the village in which their short sighted and less provident lords of the manor had, in some former period, permitted them to take up their abode for purpose of commerce. Several cases of the nature come to light during settlement, and in most of them the strength and spirit of progress were as apparent in the Labánás as were the opposite qualities conspicuous in their Gujar opponents. Their principal village is Tunda (which means a large caravan of ladon bullocks), and is an instance of what I have alluded to above. Allowed to reside by the Gujar proprietors of Mata, they got possession of the soil, built a hamlot, and in every point of importance ousting the original proprietors. They have been recognized as proprietors, but fendatory to their former landlords, the Gujars of Mata, paying to them annually, in recognition thereof, a sum equal to one-touth of the Government demand."

Rájpúts.

Of the Rájpúts, all but an insignificant minority are Muhammadans. In the census of 1881 the number of Rájpúts enumerated was 22,026, in 1891 the number was 60,220. This large difference is due simply to classification; there are several clans which are indifferently called Rájpúts or Jats, the principal among them is the Gondal clan, which occupies the Búr country of the western portion of the district, and which extends far into Shahpur In 1881 this clan was classed among the Jats, but in 1891 it is found among the Rájpúts. It was however recorded of them that they laid claim to a Rájpút descent, and that in the Shahpur district were commonly classed

as Rájpúts. They were stated to intermarry with all Jat tribes, and of late years even within their own tribe, and that they had no better claim to the superior title than the other Jat clans of the district.

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The numbers of the Bhatti clan were in 1881 recorded as Rájpúts 2,022 and Jats 9,926. In 1891 the numbers were Rájpút 7,233, Jat nil. Ránjáhs also, who were formerly included among Jats, have in the census of 1891 been classed as Rájpúts, while on the other hand, Khokhars, formerly shown as Rajputs, have been removed from that tribe in the present census returns. Thus a comparison between the number of Rájpúts of the district in 1881 and 1891 is useless.

Ráinúts.

The distribution of Rájpúts by clans as given in the census Sub-divisions papers is shown below.

Rájpúts.

Sub-divisions of Rájpúts.

	Nan	ne.		1881.		1891.			
Bhatti Janjua Chib Khokhar Kaniál Manhás		••	 	No. 2,022 1,363 6,994 5,208 1,156 1,110	Bhatti Janjua Chib Gondal Kaniál Manhás Ránjah Siál				No. 7,233 1,778 4,929 27,604 41 1,115 7,276 1,483

For purpose of comparison the numbers of the sub-divisions Su of the Jat tribe are also shown below.

Sub-divisions of

Name.			1881.	1891.	Name.			1 881.	1891.
Badhan Bangiál Bhatti Bájwa Chaj Chatta Chauhán Chhadhar Chimna Dhudhi Ghummar Gondal Hinjra Hir Kang			No. 1,117 1,965 9,926 1,477 1,866 1,182 3,429 1,524 1,413 24,825 1,179 1,588	No 1,350 1,784 4,147 584 1,981 1,199	Kanjiál Khokhar Langriál Mangat Ránjah Sahi Supra Sandothe Siál Sindhu Tarár Thal Tohtiál Waraitch			No. 1,603 1,745 1,106 12,146 4,044 1,388 1,943 1,091 622 13,588 3,945 1,983 35,253 852	No 3,831 1,142 4,718 1,359 2,587 15,804 37,483 1,221

In the statement given above sub-divisions containing less than 1,000 souls have been omitted. The classification of clans between Jat and as Jat or Rájpút is rather arbitrary. Most of those which are Rájpút. found returned sometimes as Jat, and sometimes as Rájpút, are

Distinction

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Families.

Distinction

c. really of Rájpút origin. This district lies between the Sikh tract, where everybody calls himself a Jat, and the salt range tract, where everyone who is not an Arab or Moghal, calls himself a Rájpút. The question is fully discussed in Chapter 6, Census Report of 1831, where the reasons for the classification and then adopted are given. Though the origin of the tribes is Rájpút, the people are essentially agricultural, and occupy the same social position as do those of the eastern plains, whom,

indeed, they resemble in most respects. On being questioned they invariably give out that they are Jats; though if they

are pressed, they will claim to be Rajputs.

Chibs.

between Jat

Rájpút.

The two Rajput tribes which deserve notice are the Chib and the Manhás. The Chibs occupy a strip of country (hence called Chibbal) lying at the base of the Himalayas, partly in Jammu territory, partly in the Khárián tahsíl of this district, including the greater part of the Pabbi range, together with the country between it and the Jhelam. The principal villages of the tribe are Bhimber in Jammu, and Khariali in the Pabbi They are Somavansi Rájpúts of exceptionally pure descent, tracing up their lineage to one of the Katoch Rájás of Nagarkot or Kángra. The two principalities of Bhimber and Khariali are included by General Cunningham in his list of the Rajpút States of the Jammu division of the Alpine Panjab. "Bhimber and Khariáli," he says, "were divisions of the Chibs, or Chibban branch of the Somavansi Rájás of Kángra and In early times the name Bhimber was little used, the common appellation being Chibbán, which is found in Sharfud-din's history of Timur under the form of Jibhál." General Cunningham also notices that of all the chiefs of the Jammu group of states, the Chibs alone trace their origin to the lunar The remainder claim descent from the sun. present time the greater portion of the tribe professes the Muhammadan creed; but there is also a Hindu section. conversion of the Muhammadan section is differently related. Captain Mackenzie places the event in the reign of Aurangzeb, stating that the example was set by Rája Sursadi, then head of the tribe, who was afterwards murdered by a Kandhári Moghal, and from this circumstance is known as Sursadi, the martyr. His tomb at Bhimber is still an object of veneration. Captain Waterfield attributes the conversion to the time of Rája Shadi Khan, who became a Muhammadan, in order to secure court recognition, during the reign of Humáyun. The present head of the tribe in this district is Raja Sultan Khan of Pothi, who enjoys a considerable jágir. The Chibs describe themselves as divided into seven clans (mui): Mahmdál, Jaskál, Turál, Ganjiál, Baransháhi, Durweshál, and Supiyál. They hold themselves superior to other Rájpúts, and though taking wives from other tribes, will not, as a rule, give their daughters in marriage out of the tribe, except to Sayads.

The following particulars may be quoted from Captain Mackenzie's report. Speaking of the tomb of Rája Sursadi.

mentioned above, he says:-" A curious custom connected with "it is kept up amongst the clan; when a child is born, a lock of "hair (choti) is left untouched until the child is fit to be taken "to the tomb of his ancestors, or until its parents can afford to " make the customary offerings. It is then carried to the sepul-"chre with considerable pomp, and, after certain ceremonies, the "virgin lock is cut off, and the child admitted a Chib into the clan. "A person with whom this observance has been neglected, would "not be considered a Chib of the right sort at all; and until it is "performed the mother may not eat flesh. Like Rájpúts gener-"ally, until their independence was overthrown by Mahárája "Ranjit Singh, the Chibs disdained to carry on agricultural pur-"suits. In this respect now, however, they are on a par with Jats "and others. While independent, the clan divided itself into four "major and six minor divisions. The former were termed mundis, "and the latter dheris; the head of each mundi enjoyed the "honorable title of Rái. The chiefs of the dherís were called "Thákars. The Ráis ruled over 22 villages, the Thákars over "12, and all were subject to the head of the clan, who held, as "now, the rank of Raja. These distinctive appellations of Rai "and Thákar have long ceased to be used. The families in which "the titles were formerly hereditary are known, but they retain "none of their own influence beyond their own villages." The consequence of the tribe not cultivating the land themselves still is apparent in the villages; during the absence of the owners, in the petty wars of the period, squatters settled in the best lauds of the villages, and when the Chibs finally took to agriculture they were unable to disposses these squatters. The land which is now in their possession is usually the worst in the village, but owing both to the number of men in Government military service, and to the strong clan feeling, the Chibs are now well able to hold their own and to prosper.

The Manhás claim solar origin from Rám Chandra by direct descent. They say that their ancestors came from Ajudhia and conquered Jammu, and founded the city of that name. Some say that before this conquest, they first settled in Siálkot, others that they went first to Kashmir, then to Siálkot and then to Jammu. All seem agreed that they moved into Jammu from the plains. The name Jamwal appears to have been the old name of the whole tribe, but to be now confined to the royal branch, who do not engage in agriculture, and who look down upon their cultivating brethren who are usually styled Manhás. The Manhas intermarry with the Salahria and other second class Rájpúts of the neighbourhood. They call their eldest son Rája, and the younger one Mián, and use the salutation jai. this district they hold a few villages along the banks of the Tawi, and have more dealings with the Rájpúts of Siálkot than with their neighbours in the district. They are real husbandmen and therefore occupy a very inferior position in the local scale of Rájpút precedence.

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Manhás.

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Ránjahs.

The Ránjah clan is chiefly found in the eastern uplands of Shahpur and Gujrát, between the Jhelam and Chenáb. In Gujrát they own 31 villages, mostly situated in the south-west corner of the district. They trace their descent in a very indistinct and unsatisfactory manner. Some repute them Koreshís, but their customs attest their Hindu origin. They say they are descended from Abujahil, uncle of the Prophet, whose son Akrania adopted the faith, and his son Jagis came to Ghazni and died there. His son, Duranah, with his own 11 sons (one of whom was Ránjah), imigrated with their cattle to the Kharánah bár in Jhang and Shahpur, located themselves, and are still there. Ránjah moved up the Chenáb and found Nasírpur (Shahpur); three clans are known, Khamb, Chuha and Jhal.

They intermarry with all Jats, and appear to be more closely allied to that tribe than to Ráipúts.

Gondals.

The Gondals inhabit and give their name to the bar and extend far into the Shahpur district. They own 50 villages, and are located chiefly in the Phália tahsíl on the Jhelum side. A kind of rivalry has always existed between the Gondals and the Waraitchs, but it is now almost traditional, as the clans intermarry freely and appear to be on friendly terms. They say that they came from the south, and call themselves of the Surai It is said that Kammu, tenth in descent from Gondal, who came up from a place called Naushehra to Pákpattan to a shrine of a fakir Farid Shakarganj, embraced the Muhammadan He located himself npon an old village site, called Háti Vind, in the Shahpur district, and his four sons spread over the bár into the Shahpur and Gnirát districts, but have never separated from each other. These clans are in this district called after three of the sons, Badar, Raju, and Dhir, the fourth in Shahpur is called after Buddha. They intermarry with all Jats and even with their own tribe. They are well known cattle thieves, and in this way give trouble, otherwise the tribe is contented and well disposed.

Jats.

The number of Jats enumerated in the census of 1891 was 147,346, or 19 per cent. of the total population of the district. The large majority are Muhammadans, though in almost every tribe some few were entered as Hindús. The two Jat tribes of special importance are the Waraitch and the Tarár. The Waraitch clan occupies the belt of country intermediate between the high central plateau and the lowlands of the Chenáb, both in the Gujrát and the Phália tahsíls, while the Tarár Jats occupy the lowlands of the Chenáb in the Phália tahsíl.

Waraitchs.

The Waraitch Jats are divided into two main tarafs, or sections, Abu and Jeo. They are found also in considerable numbers in the neighbouring districts of Gujránwála. The origin of the tribe is related with much variety. Captain Mackenzie gives one version of the story as follows:—

"A Jat being killed in battle near Thánesar, his wife became an outcast, took refuge in a tree, gave birth to a son and died. Rája Jaipál, when out hunting, discovered the child, and gave it protection. The tree under which it

was found was a bargat: the most appropriate name for the child was therefore Bar-a-ach (chada); the name of Waraitch was accordingly given to the boy. When he grew up to manhood, the Rája gave him his daughter in marriage, and having no son was succeeded by him, and his descendants for three generations in his ráj. Waraitch was a mighty man, worthy of his good fortune. His descendants, therefore, continued to distinguish their family by his name. Adversity came, then they fled to the Pnnjab, and settled down as tillers of soil. Sixteen generations later, two men, named Abu and Jeo, attained a pre-eminent position among the clans, and became Musalmáns, and since their time there have been two tarafs or sub-divisions in the clan—one composed of the descendants of Abu, and the other of Jeo."

Another version quoted in the Gazetteer of Gujránwála from Captain Nisbet's settlement report of that district, is briefly to the effect that Waraitch was the son of one Mutta, who came from Ghazni and settled in the Gujrát district, whence the tribe spread to Gujránwála. Mr. Griffen in his "Punjab Chiefs" (pages 410-11) gives two versions, -one substantially the same as that given by Captain Mackenzic, the other an amplification of the Ghazni story. In this version, however, not Waraitch, but a remote ancestor, named Sháh, was the first of the family to settle in India. He is said to have accompanied Sultán Mahmúd in his invasion of India in A. D. 1001, and to have been present at . the battle fought with Jaipal. Rája of Lahore. Struck with the fertility of the country named Ğujrát, Shah settled near the Gujar village of Kulachar, where for 350 years his family lived in obscurity, until in the person of Waraitch, son of Mattu, it rose to the surface, and expelling the Gujars expanded by degrees to its present importance. This circumstance, it will be noted, serves to link the tribal history with the name of Jaipál, though in a different connection from that of Captain Mackenzie's version.

The account of the tribe as given by Captain Waterfield in revised settlement report differs from the above. He wrote that the clan traces back its connection with Rája Karn, Suraj Bansi. Twenty-seven generations, or 500 years previously, Waraitch, the founder of the clan, came from the city of Kistah to Delhi, and receiving favor at the hands of Jalál-ud-dín Firoz Shah, the King of Delhi, settled in the village of Taika, in the district of Hissar. He had five sons; among them, these three, Wadrah, Shahajrat and Tejrah, received permission of the king to locate themselves in Gujránwála. They called their village Tarka Ladda. Gradually they located 80 villages, and, crossing the Chenáb, settled on this side also. About 400 years ago, in the time of Sultán Mahmúd Tughlak, one Jaits, a descendant of the eldest Wadrah, became famous. When Amír Taimúr, Mughl, from Samarkand arrived at Multan, Jaits joined him with his family and dependants, and, coming to terms with Nawab Sayad Khan, one of the confidential followers of Taimúr, attached himself to his army. They reached Kunjáh, and there met and fought Rája Jaspál, and defeated him, and took possession For his services it was made over to this Jaits, of the country. in order that he might colonise it and collect the revenue. On the death of Malik Jasrat of Manawar by poison at the hand of

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Families.

Waraitchs.

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Waraitchs.

his wife, the daughter of Mandeo, the latter (Mandeo) descerded from Jammu to take possession of the country. He was opposed by Jaits, but they came to terms, and agreed that the Tawi and Chenáb should divide their territories; Jaits retaining the southern and western sides, Mandeo, the northern and eastern. Jaits remained in possession until his death, when his jagir was confiscated, and his son succeeded him; about that time onefourth of the area was cultivated, the rest was jungle. New villagos were then founded by different members of the clan. Hariya and Gunia, two sons of Jaits, became the most powerful; Kardál and Hambo never acquired any position. From Hariya the Jis Waraitch, and from Gunia the Abu Waraitch are descend-The Emperor Akbar formed the Waraitch into two tappás, called after Abbo and Jis, who were in the position of chaudhris. The Gujrát district was then known as Naulakha, the revenue being called nine lakhs, two-fifths of the area was under the Waraitch, three-fifths under the Gujar clan. The revenue was, however, distributed inversely, with reference to the quality of land, the Waraitch paying three-fifths, the Gujars two-fifths. So matters continued up to the time of Shahjehan, when in the Jis section Abu-ul-Kher and Khanzáda, were the influential men, and in the Abbo section, Kinds, Chuhar and Kalu became No shares, however, existed, all rights were accordchaudhrís. ing to possession. At the general disorganisation, when the country came under Sardár Sáhib Singh, jágírs were broken up, and the former method of paying the revenue altogether changed. Then Raujit Singh came into power and chaudhris and zaildars were formed of the most influential men.

At the present time the whole clan with nominal exceptions is of the Muhammadan faith, but a few Hindu families are scattered through the district, especially in the Gujrát tahsíl. As a rule, members of the tribe do not intermarry, but connect themselves with any of the larger Jat tribes of this and the neighbouring districts of Siálkot and Gujránwála. It is a disgrace for any branch to marry a low caste woman. Brahman parchits are maintained in almost all their villages, an unmistakeable relic of their old religion. Physically they are men of good presence, well-made and above the average height. As agriculturists they are second in the district only to the Aráin. They own 180 villages, and have 13 representatives among the zaildárs.

Tarárs.

The Tarár Jats are also prominent in the neighbouring district of Gujráuwála. Both brauches of the clan trace their descent to one Banni or Batti, who is said to have come from Bhatner in Bikaner. The tribe is divided into seven sections (mui), with the exception of a few individuals all are at the present time Muhammadans. They intermarry with the leading Jat clans of the neighbourhood, and also occasionally among themselves. They are men of good character and intelligence, and are noticeable for their independence. They own 83 villages in the district.

About 14 per cent. of the total population were at the census of 1891 recorded as Gujars. The members are all Mubammadans, and own 463 villages in the district. They are located in the Khárián and Gujrát talisíls, holding land south of the Pabbi hills, and extending south till the line of Jat colonisation is met. The tribe is almost entirely agricultural, and the people much resemble the Jats of the district. They are extravagant and fond of dress, and take more pride in their cattle and horses than do the Jats; but, unless driven by circumstances. prefer to carry on their cultivation without irrigation. district is the stronghold of the tribe in the Panjab. Gujrát is the place to which there is a traditional tendency for all Gujars to refer their origin. The Gujars are sub-divided into a great number of families, each called by its own name, which is generally that of some ancestor, who became in his time so powerful as to leave his name to posterity. It would not appear, however, that any new divisions have been separated off from the

Sub-divisions of Gujars.

		1881.						
Su	Sub-divisions.							
	_			Rs.				
Kathána		***		21,449				
Kasána		•••	•••	3,048				
Kalas		•••	•••	3,560				
Garsi	•••		•••	3,312				
Chechi	•••	•••		8,092				
Dhedar		•••	• • •	1,921				
Paswál		•••	• • •	3,491				
Bijar	•••		•••	3,592				
Thikrián	•••	***	•••	3,524				
Chauhán		•••	***	7,985				
Bhamli	•••	• • •	•••	2,189				

main stock for the last 150 years. During this period there would seem to have been no giant, and the various classes have been content to reverence and abide by the distinguishing denominations derived from their ancestors prior to that time. probable, also, that after the Muhammadan time, no Muhammadan zamindár was allowed to become so prominent as to warrant his setting himself up as the founder of a clan. marginal statement shows the principal sub-divisions and population of each for 1881. In the census of 1891 enumeration by sub-divisions was not made.

The Kathána clan is by far the most important, and holds 132 villages. Bards of the clan claim descent from Rája Jaspál and the Pandoas. Their story is that Rája Jaspál extended his dominion from Thánesar to this district, and when Sultán Mahmúd Subuktagín in Sambat 1034 advanced upon Hindustán, Rája Jaspál met him at Attock, and was defeated and killed. His son Anandpál succeeded him for two years at Lahore, and then fled to Hindustán. Anandpál had two sons, Rája Kathána and Rája Jaides. The former returned and reigned in Lahore and became a Muhammadan. Other Gujars in this district are also descended from other sons of Anandpál. Sultán Mahmúd gave the Kathána Gujars some jágír land in this district. They located themselves at Shahpur which is now a deserted mound in Chak Dína, and remained there for seven generations. In the time of Akbar the Gujars paid Rs. 1,25,000 for permission

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Gujars.

Kathánás.

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Chechi and Chauhán claus.

to rebuild Gujrát. After this four tappás were formed:—Akaja 484 villages, Kandu 584 villages, Hindu 84 villages, Bála 184 villages of the Kathána clan. Most of these were afterwards at different times deserted.

Next in importance are the Chechi and Chauhán clans, which hold respectively 39 and 35 villages. The Chechi claim Rájpút descent and are connected with the Kathána clan. They are called after Chechi, son of Jagdeo, who took service with Sultán Masúd, became a Muhammadan and afterwards founded Chechián in this district. The Chauhán also claim Rájpút descent through Rái Pithora of Delhi.

A few leading families of the Kathána clan are said to be exclusive in their matrimonial alliance, intermarrying only with each other, but with this exception all the Gujar clans freely Captain Waterfield described them as men of average stature, quiet and unassuming. Formerly, he adds they grazed cattle and were given to thieving, but they have lately taken to honesty and cultivation. Contrasting them with their Jat neighbours, Captain Mackenzie says :- "Both are now of "very similar tastes and habits, but old instincts still linger about "them. While the Jat considers himself par excellence zamindar, "the Gujar (gau-char) deems it more his proper vocation to herd "cattle and subsist by the sale of their produce. Still there is "none of that wide difference which distinguishes a Jat from a The title of honor among the Jats is "Gujar in Hindustán. "chaudhri while the Gujar rejoices in the style mahar."

Sayads.

Sayads hold 44 villages which are scattered in different parts of the district. They are divided into eight sections:—
Trimzi, Khwarazmi, Mashadi, Giláni, Baghdádi, Bukhári, Misri, Multáni, after the names of the places they first occupied on leaving Arabia. Their location in this district is probably of very old date. When they condescend to cultivate they make bad cultivators, but are almost worse as landlords. They are lazy and thriftless, but consider themselves very holy. They mostly intermarry within the tribe, taking wives, however, from Koreshis or Ghakhars and even from Mughl families. A Sayad girl on the other hand cannot marry out of the tribe. They are litigious and discontented, their properties being minutely subdivided as a consequence of their marriage customs.

Mughl.

Mughls hold 22 villages in the district and are divided into four sections: Barlas, Chaughatta, Ghoresh, Danshmandeh. Their number in 1881 was 5,290 and at the census of 1891, 6,303: most belong to the Barlas sub-division. They probably entered the Panjab with Bábar, or were attracted thither under the dynasty of his descendants and attained their present location at the time of the invasion of the Mughl armies. They are thus described by Captain Mackenzie:—"They are an unhappy "race. Puffed up with pride of birth, they account themselves "above all other classes except Sayads; even among themselves,

"each house reckons itself higher than its neighbour, and amongst "the clans, although of high descent, they are now at a discount. "Those that might be admitted their equals despise them, such "as Chibs and Ghakhars, while to lower classes they themselves "will not stoop. The consequence is that social relations are "sometimes at a dead-lock, marriages cannot be arranged and "suspicions of female infanticide have sometimes attached to Only a short time ago I found that the Mughl "village of Rasúl contained 18 unmarried adult women varying "in age from 20 to 60, two had attained this last venerable vir-"ginity. Engaged in their youth to Mughl lads, their parents "had fallen out, and sulky to the last the sore had never healed, "the marriage could not be solemnised, nor the engagement "broken off. A case occurred in which a new born child was "found dead near the village, when I improved the opportunity "and recommended general reconciliation. I was glad to hear "six months after that nearly all the young ladies had been "settled in life."

Tribes, Castes, and Leading Families: Mughl.

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Khokhars hold 29 villages, mostly situated along the south of the Pabbi range. The tribe in 1891 numbered 6,972 persons, in the census of 1881 they were enumerated among Rájpúts. Their descent is the same as the Awáns. Khokhar is said to have come from Ghazni and settled in Hindustán in some place called Garh Kharána. He there acquired power, but was ejected by Taimúr Shah. His descendants, Bharat and Jasrat, when in the service of Taimúr Shah, took Jammu and then settled in this district. Jasrat's descendants are still here. They are known as sub-divided into four clans: Kalu, Sajjan, Rihan and Khiwa. Khokhars intermarry with Awáns and Rájpúts, Manhás and Bhattís, and call themselves Rájpúts.

Awans.

Khokhars.

Awans hold 55 villages scattered through the district. The tribe in 1881 numbered 13,029 persons, at the census of 1891 it numbered 15,272 souls. The Awans claim descent from Kutab Shab, who was himself descended from Hasrat Ali, son-in-law and first cousin of the Prophet. Kntab Shah came from Arabia to Persia, and then settled in Ghazni. He had five sons, Khohár, Dádu, Kalghan, Jhan, and Kaddan. The Khohárs are descended from the one: the descendants of another are located about Sohán and Soketar in the Ráwalpindi Division. The descendants of Kalghan are to be found in Muhekot in Jallandhar; those of Jhan in Siudh; those of Kaddan in Siálkot. They appear to have come to Hindustán as momid or muáwan, followers and allies of Muhammadan conquerors, and to have derived their name from that fact. Some appear to have come to this district from Sohan Soketar and some from Sindh. They are divided into numberless clans or mui. They do not intermarry with other tribes. They are quiet and industrious, and are good cultivators.

Kashmiria.

The Kashmírís, who in 1881 numbered 33,319 souls, and at the census of 1891 34,153 souls, deserve a passing mention. They are not important as landowners, possessing but one village,

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Kashmírís,

but they are largely employed as farm laborers, and hold land as tenants. In 1881 it was thought that the returns of Kashmiris had been unduly inflated by the famine in Kashmir, but figures of the last census appear to show that such was not the case. The main colony of Kashmiris is in Jalálpur, where attempts were made to raise their position and to improve the shawl-weaving manufacture as early as 1855. But the colony is not now as thriving as it then was, the smaller demand for Kashmir goods and the competition of the large manufacturers

is not now as thriving as it then was, the smaller demand for Kashmír goods and the competition of the large manufacturers of Amritsar, have led many of the people to leave for that town. The great majority of persons now returned as Kashmírís are employed simply in agriculture. Most are probably Chibbális Muhammadan Rájpúts. Kashmírís do not bear a good character, they are dirty in their habits, lazy by nature, and thieves when they get an opportunity.

Principal families. There are only 10 darbárís in the district, and several of them are men who have but little influence in the country outside their own property and jágírs. The following is a brief account of the principal families and leading men.

Rája Sultán Khan.

Rája Sultán Khan of Pothi, son of Sher Jhang Khan, is

--- David Arman

the leading man among the Chibs. His ancestors held the district of Khari-Kariali nntil the Sikhs rose to power. In the time of Prince Kharak Singh the family held jágirs both in this district and in Jammu territory across the border. At annexation in consideration of the former jágírs an assignment of the villages of Dák Pothi, Bhalwal, Harchal and part of Phularwan was made to Raja Sultan Khan, on payment of one-fourth nazrána. During the mutiny he raised some troops and showed himself thoroughly loyal; for his services he was granted a cash reward of Rs. 500, and the nazrána was remitted on his jágír. He was in 1892 granted the title of Khan Bahádur. Rája Sultán Khan has much influence in his tribe, but he lives a rather retired life at Pothi, where he devotes himself to farming and horse-breeding, and his influence is not so extensive as it might be. During the settlement of 1892 his jágír villages in which revenue had previously been taken in kind were assessed in cash, and though a special pension of Rs. 1,000 a year was granted to the Rája for life, in consequence of the loss which he sustained by these orders, he considers that he has been rather badly treated.

Mardán Ali Khan,

The Chib family of Ghulám Ali Khan, now represented by Resáldár-Major Mardán Ali Khan is of considerable local influence. Ghulám Ali Khan succeeded his father Bandu Khan as Kárdár under the Sikhs. His management of the district was successful, and four villages were granted to him in jagír. In 1849 he showed himself hostile to Government, and his jágír was resumed; but during the mutiny he retrieved his character and was given a life pension of Rs. 300. Mardán Ali Khan, his son, is a fine specimen of a native officer. His service was in the 12th Bengal Cavalry, to which he furnished 30 sowárs at the

time of the mutiny. He retired in 1892 after serving for many years as Resáldár-Major of the regiment, with a most distingnished record of service. He is decorated with the order of British India, and has received the title of Sardár Bahádar in addition to a grant of 500 acres of land, specially sanctioned by the Government of India as a reward for his services. He resides in Besa, and is zaildár. While he was serving with his regiment his son, Mumtáz Ali, carried on the duties of zaildár with considerable ability, and though quite a young man gives promise of a successful career. No fewer than 18 members of this family are serving Government, most of them as officers in the Bengal Cavalry.

Chapter III, C. Tribes, Castes and Leading Families. Mardán Ali Khan.

Sardár Hari Singh and Sardár Gián Singh are the grand- Sardar Hari Singh. sons of Gurmukh Singh, the founder of the family. Gurmukh Singh was of humble origin, his father Pardhan Singh being a money changer in the little town of Khiwa situated on the left bank of the Jhelam, opposite Jalalpur. Gurmukh Singh was one of the most famous of Maharaja Ranjit Singh's Generals, having been engaged in most of the wars of the period. He received many grants of land, but through the hostility of the Dogra Rájás he was able to retain only a small portion. annexation he was in possession of Rs. 36,600 a year: Government in 1850 released his personal júgirs, worth Rs. 12,000, and that of his son, worth Rs. 2,000 for their lives, with a provision that one-third of the Sardár's jágir should descend to his heirs in perpetuity. Sardar Attar Singh held no Government office, but was an influential landowner in the Phália tahsíl. He died in 1880 and was succeeded by his sons, Sardárs Hari Siugh and Gián Singh, who reside respectively in Killa Sardár Attar Singh and Pindi Lála. On the death of their father the sons disputed about the division of the jágirs, and it was decided by Government that each son should receive an equal Sardár Hari Singh has influence as a landowner, share. zaildar and member of the District Committee, but personally he devotes himself to sport, and the affairs of the district do not trouble him much.

The family of Rái Maha Singh was formerly of some importance; it is now represented by Mohr Singh, Teja Singh and Káhan Singh. Kishan Singh, their father, rendered assistance in 1857 in arresting some fugitives of the 14th Regiment Native Infantry, which had mutinied at Jhelam. For service on this occasion he was rewarded with a grant of Rs. 400 in cash, he died in 1860 before he was able to carry out the desire of his mind in recovering the jágírs formerly in possession of his family. His children were left minors, and his estate in Khiwa came under the Court of Wards. Sardár Kahan Singh. is a Náib-Tahsíldár, Mohr Singh, a Deputy Inspector of Police, while Teja Singh manages the property. Didár Singh, a distant cousin, has been converted to Christianity, and is employed as a teacher in the Gujrát Mission School. He is held in cousiderable estimation for his honesty in the town of Gujrát.

Mohr Singh.

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Mián Singh.

The family of Sardár Káhan Singh, Brahman of Khohar was formerly of some account, by reason of his relation to the ruling Sikhs. The family came originally from Vad Gurha, a village near Rohtás, in the Jhelam district. Missar Dhanna first came to Khohar, and his son Kahan Singh gave his own sister in marriago to Rája Lál Singh, who was Rája of Rohtás. He in return gave Kahan Singh the rank of Sardar and a jagir, part of which was continued at annexation. Káhan Singh left two sons, Rám Singh, the elder, who succeeded to the jágir, and Bishan Singh, the younger, who was made zaildar in 1867. The two branches of the family have never been on good terms, as Bishan Singh considered that some portion of the jágír should have fallen to him. Rám Singh died in 1892 and was succeeded by his only son Mián Singh.

The family of Sardár Amrík Singh is of the Saini Khatri

Sardár Amrík Singh.

caste, and has for seven generations been resident at Ráwal-The grandfather of Sardár Amrik Singh was a trader Nihal Singh in 1830 married the only by name Rámbhaj. daughter of Sardár Gurmukh Singh, Cháchi. This chief was the son of Fatteh Singh who, with his brother Sher Singh, was killed in the Kashmir campaign. Sardar Gurmukh Singh succeeded to his father's jágír, but died in 1829, soon after which Nihál Singh married his daughter and was allowed to take the name of Cháchi, and succeeded to his father-in-law's jágír. Sardár Nihál Singh was in attendance on the Agent to the Governor-General at Lahore in 1848, and remained loyal to the British Government throughout the rebollion. During the mutiny he gave still further proofs of his loyalty, and was rewarded, in October 1858, with a present of Rs. 10,000, and an additional jágír of Rs. 6,000 to descend to his lineal male heirs in perpetuity, on condition of active loyalty. In 1862 Rs. 10,000 of his jágír were released in perpetuity, and in June 1866 he was created Knight Commander of the Star of India. his death in 1873 the jágír, to which the law of primogeniture applies, descended to his son Sardár Amrík Singh. eldest son also succeeded his father as Viceregal Darbári in the Ráwalpindi district. In 1857 Sardár Amrík Singh raísed a body of mounted police, and led them to Oudh, where they did good service. He afterwards served for many years, as Tahsíldár in the Panjab, and retired in 1892 to take up his residence in Kuujáh. Part of his jágír is situated in Ráwalpindi and part in Gujrát, where he also owns land in the Phália tahsíl.

Lála Ganga Rám.

Among others who, having retired from Government employment, have either settled or who hold land in the district, the following may be noticed shortly. Lála Ganga Rám, whose father was a resident of Kunjáh. He was for more than ten years in charge of the Bhakkar sub-division of the Dera Ismail Khan district and retired with a great reputation for honesty and truthfulness in 1892.

Yốr Muhammad Khan and his younger brother Muhammad Hayát Khan, Popalzai, have both retired from the service as Extra Assistaut Commissioners. The former owns land in Tahsíl Phália, but resides at Gujrát, where he is an influential member of the Municipal Committee. The latter is a householder in Gujrát, but his chief residence is in Pesháwar. Muhammad Family. mad Sarwar Khan, son of Yár Muhammad Khan, is a Tahsíldár; Muhammad Hussain Khan, son of Muhammad Hayát Khan, is employed in the district office, and is a candidate for the post of Näib-Tahsíldár.

Resáldár-Major Jowáhir Singh, a Sári Khatri, is a resident of Chotála in the Jhelam district. He served with much distinction in the 2nd Panjab Cavalry, and received a grant of five hundred acres in the Phália tahsíl where he has founded a village. In addition to the above many other retired native officers of the Indian Army are to be found in the district, but none of them are of importance in district administration.

It can be seen from the above accounts that, with the exception of the Chib families, none of the present leading families belong to the principal tribes of the district. When Gujrát was overrun by the Sikh armies at the beginning of the century, and the district became the battle-field of the Sikh Sardárs, the Chibs were never reduced to the same state of subjection as the Jats and Gujars, and were employed by the contending factions. But the administration of the country was largely left in the hands of the leading men of the tribes, who, though not allowed any sort of independence by their rulers, were permitted to exercise a certain amount of authority within their own tribe. But this state of affairs did not last sufficiently long to enable families to rise to any exceptional position; the headmen, who eame to the front, both acquired and retained their preeminence by their personal merit. It therefore came about that several sons of men who had been influential, were unable to retain their position and fell into obsentity; while others, whose fathers had not risen above the common herd, pushed themselves forward by their abilities. Some of the families have, however, retained a certain amount of influence: among them may be particularly mentioned Muhammad Khan of Dingah, son of Abdulla Khan, the leading man of the Kathana Gujars; Muhammad Khan, son of Kutab Dín of Jaura Jalálpur, and Pír Bakhsh of Waraitchánwala are also influential men of the same elan of the Chechi Gujars; Ilm Din of Bahowal holds a front position, and other Gujars of note are Mír Báz (Kálas) of Ajnála; Ján Muhammad (Miána) of Háslánwála. The chief representative of the Waraiteh tribe is Muhammad Khan of Jalalpur, who has two sons, zaildars in the district, and a third at the Panjab Chiefs' College. Other influential Jats are Atta Muhammad, son of Muhammad Khan (Waraiteh) of Maghowal; Shashu (Gondal) of Majhi; Sukhá (Tarár) of Phália.

Chapter III, C.

Tribes, Castes and Leading Families.

The Popalzai Family.

Jowáhir Singh.

Tribal notables.

Chapter III, D.

Village Communities, Rights and Tenures. Village tenures.

SECTION D.—VILLAGE COMMUNITIES, RIGHTS AND TENURES.

Table No. XV shows the number of villages held in the various forms of tenures, as shown in the annual returns of 1501-92. The accuracy of these figures is very doubtful. It is in many eases simply impossible to class a village satisfactorily under any one of the ordinary recognised tenures. The primary division of rights between the main sub-divisions of a village often follows one form, while the interior distribution among the several proprietors of each of these sub-divisions perhaps follows another form, which itself often varies from one sub-division to another.

In pure zamindári or pattidári estates the tenures are simple; in pattidári estates the revenue is usually distributed among subdivisions according to ancestoral shares, and within the subdivisions according to ancestoral shares. In other estates the simple form of distribution of revenue is either by an even rate, on all cultivation, or by applying separate rates to different classes of soils, and so determining the revenue of each owner according to the land in his possession. But a not uncommon form of distribution is the primary determination of the gross revenue of each sub-division of an estate by means of an even rate applied to all cultivation in the estate, and a further internal distribution by shares within the sub-division. It may be said that, generally, zamindári estates are becoming pattidári, and pattidári estates are showing a tendency to become bhainchára.

Joint responsibility.

Where the distribution of revenue is made by an all round rate on cultivation, villagers are often not satisfied unless the revenue, in addition to being recorded for each holding, is also recorded for each taraf or patti, although in many cases no separate tarafs or pattis had been shown to exist in the village. In this the desire for limited responsibility is manifest; it shows that one tribe, or one family, is not content to be merged in the village community, but wishes in this way to prepare a road for a final separation. Among lambardars, too, there is a growing desire to be recorded lambardar of one, or of more pattir, not simply as one of the lambardars. Often the reason is simply that being so recorded he would be entitled to receive the pachotra and malba of such pattis, which might give him increased emoluments; but beyond this, there is a tendency to withdraw from joint responsibility, and to act as if he was lambardár of a portion of the village only, and as if the affairs of the remainder of the village do not concern him. For practical purposes of village management, there may be much in favor of this, but it eannot be recognised by Government, who, unless it is expressly so stated, must consider all the lambardars of a village jointly responsible. For years past the ties of joint responsibility have been growing lesser, each sub-division of a village is beginning to desire to be treated separately, and to wish to be represented by a separate lambardar. But so long as the present system obtains, joint responsibility must be enforced; the lambardars, however, have often a difficult part to play, and require the fullest support. Captain Mackenzie recognised the change which would be produced by a firm Government when he wrote: "But I think we ought to remember "that these little republics were the result of a despotic and "arbitrary Government, and may as naturally, and perhaps in-bility. "evitably, break up under enlightened laws, and the spirit of "improvement; and however expedient the village settlements "of to-day may be, we must, I think, boldly face the time, when "landed property with its interests and responsibilities will again "be minutely sub-divided, and when our system of land revenue "will also change. To do otherwise seems to me to fight against "destiny. To attach to expediency a value which we refuse to "concede to those laws, which are now recognised as universal "in the growth of nations, is a futile attempt to restrain the "latter in order to keep up the former."

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responsi-Joint

Cultivating occu-

Statement No. XVI shows the cultivating occupancy of the land as it stood in 1891-92. It shows that in the whole dis-paney. trict owners cultivate, excluding fractions, 67 per cent. of the total cultivated area; tenants paying no rent hold I per cent., tenants with rights of occupancy hold 7 per cent.; and tenantsat-will hold 24 per ceut, of the cultivated area. In Tahsil Gujrát owners hold 63 per cent., occupancy tenants 10 per cent., and tenants-at-will 26 per cent. of cultivated area. The average area of an owner's holding is 3.3 acres: of an occupancy tenant's holding 1.7 acres: and of the holding of a tenant-at-will 1.9 acres. In Tahsíl Khárián 66 per cent. of total cultivation is in the hands of owners: 11 per cent. is held by occupancy tenants, and 22 per cent. is held by tenants-at-will. The average area per holding of owner is 4 acres, per holding of occupancy tenant 1.8 acres, and per holding of tenant at-will 1.7 acres. In Tahsil Phália 73 per cent. of cultivation is in the hands of owners: occupancy tenants hold one per cent. of the cultivated area, and tenants-at-will hold 25 per cent. The average area per owner's holding is 5.9 acres: per holding of occupancy tenant 2.7 acres, and per holding of tenant-at-will 3.1 acres. The average area of holding has since last settlement continued to decrease, and in most of Gujrát tahsíl, and in the northern part of Khárián tahsíl the limit must almost have been reached, below which holdings cannot be reduced.

At regular settlement the investigating officers were con- Proprietary tenures. fronted with the initial difficulty of deciding who should be recorded as proprietor of the land. The interest of two parties had to be considered, one the proprietor, the other the cultivator, and the question whether they were separate or merged in the same person had to be decided by the evidence of the case. Prima facie the cultivator would be recorded proprietor. another party, not cultivating, claimed the proprietary right of the land, it was considered necessary for him to prove that he

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Proprietary ures. had successfully asserted his right over the cultivator from time to time, and that he would be allowed to do so in future by the cultivator.

The Sikh Government took all it could from the cultivator. leaving possibly nothing beyond what was absolutely necessary for his support, and consequently nothing remained for a third party. Still they did not ignore the rights of a third party, and when the Government demand was more moderate, these rights were profitably exercised over those who, though cultivators, were not proprietors. The Sikh Government made certain concessions in favor of headmen and chaudhris who assisted, either by giving them inams or by exempting a plough or well from assessment. These headmen, on their part, managed both the revenue for Government and the village affairs for the community in general; from the latter they collected malba to defray the village expenses. They also managed the waste lands, put in cultivators, and exercised a large amount of authority in the village, and were thus raised considerably above the rest of the community in rank and influence. But these lambardars and chaudhris could not on this account be considered proprietors of their villages, for in this district they were almost universally only units of the brotherhood comprising these communities, every member of which had an equal right to the proprietorship. of the soil. It only proved them to have been office-bearers by appointment on the part of Government, and by election on the part of the communities.

The question, therefore, lay not between the headman and the cultivators, but between the whole of the brotherhood and any other class of cultivator who might be found located in the village. But in the village two classes were found, one of which appropriated to itself the title of waris or malik to which the other class did not presume to aspire; and it was necessary to decide whether one or both were enabled to be recorded as proprietor.

Warisi and maliki no doubt originally implied the same thing. A man founded a village, his descendants were the heirs (waris) of the village land, and would have reaped all benefits of the warásat or málki, had the Government left any to be enjoyed. All other classes cultivating in the village would have been But time went on, land was abundant, reckoned inferior. population scant, the country became long subject to Pathán dcvastation, and afterwards to Sikh misrule, and the tendency bccame rather to abandon rights—symbols more of misery than of benefit—than to contend for their exact definition and enjoyment. The heritors of estates and subsequent squatters, the waris and It was not tenant, were placed on the same miserable level. until Rája Guláb Singh's governorship that a wiser system. can be said to have been introduced. But it was too late, all ... classes called for more lenient treatment and to a certain extent obtained it. But equality had existed too long for the waris

successfully to demand from the old cultivator of two, three, or four generations standing, what a more liberal economy had made it possible for a málik to exact, and thus although the headmen by virtue of their office enjoyed special privileges, the rest of the community, the warrs, and the asami alike were on a level. Biswi or málikána dues were unknown: ancestral shares were forgotten or had fallen entirely into disuse: malba was ures. levied from both alike, upon the extent of cultivating possession, so also the revenue, fines, cesses, and burdens of every kind. There was in short no evidence to be found of one class having exercised proprietary right over other classes, resident in the same village. Both classes had cultivated their occupancy for generations, both had shared public burdens at the same rate, neither had the power of ejecting the other, all had dealt directly with the Government or its agents, the chaudhris; and the footing on which they stood, was essentially the same. This state of things had continued so long that it was impossible but to admit that the so-called asámís had acquired by the lapse of time a prescriptive right to be maintained on this footing of equality.

The facts having been ascertained, it was felt that the question of proprietary right could be decided in one of two ways; either to declare the asámi to be a tenant having an hereditary right of possession, and to have exempted him from paying anything more than that to which he had been accustomed, viz, his share of the Government revenue and joint expenses, or to declare him a proprietor of the land in his possession. The latter course was adopted where the prescriptive rights of the cultivator were found to have been of such long standing that he had ceased to be a tenant, he was declared to be a málik malbúza: he was given a proprietary title in the land which he cultivated. Two kinds of proprietors were thus established, one the wáris, a full sharer in the proprietary rights of the village of whatever kind; the other the asámi, merely proprietor of the land he cultivated.

The reasons for giving a proprietary title to the asámi instead of recording him as hereditary tenant are given by Captain Mackenzie as follows :- "It would have had the effect "of diminishing the value of landed property so occupied-as "property indeed it could not have been correctly said to exist-"property implies benefits. Of what benefit would such land "have been to the person entered as proprietor." The tenant's hereditary right of possession precluded him from the power of ouster, and as a source of income or as a means of raising money Who would buy or lend money it would have been profitless. upon land occupied by tenants in the enjoyment of the profits derivable therefrom, and who could not be ejected? So also the tenant beyond the usufructuary benefits, none would have been conferred upon him-only a tenant, he could not sell the land. The person entered as proprietor would have, it is true the reversionary right to possession and subsequent free disposal

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Proprietary ten-

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D. of the land in the event of the cultivator vacating it. But this was a very improbable contingency. Practically the effect would have been paralysing, the land would have been rendered ownerless, property without a proprietor, and the intelligible course evidently was either to relieve the pseudo-proprietor of ten. the disabilities he was so willing to charge himself with and to adjudge him proprietary profits or to pronounce the occupant proprietor.

In his review—of Captain Mackenzie's report, the Financial Commissioner, Mr. Cust, wrote: - "The oppressive Sikh Kardar "had reduced both proprietors and cultivators to the same miser-"able level: in many instances no doubt the kardar had introduced "the latter. No symbol of proprietary right had been reserved "to those who by the voice of the country were considered the "owners, and it was impossible, after the lapse of years, to cuforce-"any rent, the cultivator who pays no rent is de facto the, "proprietor, and Captain Mackenzie has wisely recorded him as "such, but of a grade inferior to the ancestral owners, and with "rights more limited, for clearly their property is confined to their "actual cultivation, and they could have no claim to village "perquisites, common land or village office. I hail this solution "of the difficulty, which encompassed the tenant-right question. "Property without rent is a caput mortuum, if you cannot restore "it, it is better judicially to declare to whom it has passed, and not "to allow the right to be in abeyance."

At revision of settlement in 1866, it was found that the intention of the orders passed at regular settlement had not been given effect to in the records in very many cases. Where the asámí had been found to be a málik makbúza, or owner of the land in his possession, be had generally been entered simply as málik; his name was shown in the Shajra-nasab, and the record made no difference between him and the original waris malik. He had been practically admitted to all the rights of owner in the village, and in many cases, in which the village common land had been partitioned, he had been given a share. The question was raised whether in the new records the entry of málik was to be retained, or whether the intention of the original orders was to be carried out, and an entry of málik mukbúza made. It was decided that the old entries must remain undisturbed, and it remained with the original proprietors to establish in the Law Courts that any title of málik was in reality only that of málik málik makbúza. In the papers of revised settlement, both málik (wáris) and málik makbúza were recorded as málik. The opportunity was not taken by the original proprietors at that time to assert their rights by suit, and the mistake made at regular settlement became stereotyped in the records.

But though entered under one name, the distinction between the two classes of owners is still to some extent maintained, and is a fertile cause of dispute. In most villages in the distribution

of revenue a separate rate is fixed for land held by málik kabza, by taking an all round rate ou total cultivation, while that of owners (málik) is fixed by taking an all round rate on cultivation, after excluding shámilát cultivation, or by shares. Disputes are liable to arise whenever the village shámilát is partitioned, and in such cases it has been ruled that it is neces- Proprietary tenures. sary for the málik wáris to prove, in order to prevent málik kabza obtaining a share, that such malik kabza had previously not partaken of the profits of the shámilát.

Table No. XVI shows the number of tenancy holdings and the gross area held under each of the main forms of tenancy as they stood in 1891-92; while Table No. XXI gives the current rent rates of land. But the accuracy of the latter is not to be relied upon, it is impossible to state general rent rates which shall even approximately represent the letting value of land throughout a whole district, and with such a large self-cultivating proprietary body the difficulty is even further enhanced. The following statement shows the area in acres of land found to be in the occupation of tenants at the three settlements:-

	REGUL.	ar Settl	викит.	Revisi	D SETTL	емент.	1891-92.			
TARSIL.	Occupied by here- ditary tenants.	Occupied by ten- ants-at-will.	Total.	Occupied by here- ditary tenants.	by by still.		Occupied by here- ditury tenants.	Occupied by tenantesat-will.	Total.	
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	
Gujrát	31,700	33,209	64,908	30,532	35,434	65,966	28,225	71,232	99,457	
Khárián	25,618	22,098	47,716	27,014	27,816	51,830	27,165	56,475	83,745	
Phália	3,149	11,199	14,348	2,642	19,856	22,4 98	2,350	65,993	68,313	
Total	60,467	66,505	126,972	60,188	83,106	143,294	57,840	193,700	251,510	

At regular settlement a full enquiry was made into the status of tenants, who were divided into two main classes, 1857. tenants with rights of occupancy and tenants-at-will. The grant of proprietary rights in their holdings as málik makbuza to a great extent simplified the enquiry and reduced the claims for occupancy rights. The chief difficulty in fact which first arose was in discriminating between tenants and owners, as at the commencement of enquiries there was a general consent in many instances by the original owners to accord proprietary title to all tenants. It was only when the people began to see that a contrary course produced the profitable effect of málikána, that opposition began to be displayed. And where this had, from the merits of the case, to be overcome, the old proprietors, finding their loss to be of purely a negative character, generally acquiesced without much demur. In

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Tenant right in

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1857.

pronouncing tenants hereditary no fixed rule as to period of possession was followed. In villages of comparatively recent establishment, twelve years was deemed a sufficient period; while in long established villages, twenty years' possession was required to be proved in order to constitute a tenant hereditary. Tenant right in basis of the grant of occupancy rights in the district was the. duration of the tenant's occupancy previous to the enquiry. respect of cultivated land such possession was capable of proof, but a further question arose as to the grant of occupancy rights in waste land. It was found in compiling the record that many proprietors were shown as having large tracts of culturable waste in their exclusive possession. As the revenue was paid on cultivation, it was felt that to allow proprictors to retain this waste land, which could be brought under cultivation immediately settlement was completed, would be unjust. But further enquiry showed that many such pieces of land had been in exclusive possession for a long time, and that almost every one in some villages, whether proprietors or tenants, possessed such enclosures of less or greater extent. The decision as regards tenants was that if the enclosed pasturage were required by the proprietor, the tenant might be dispossessed of all except an amount equal to 20 per cent. upon his cultivation, which amount the custom of the village decmed necessary for the grazing of the plough bullocks; and if the estate were divided, the whole would of course be liable to be accounted common land. If the tenant brought any part of the enclosure under cultivation, he would be, as to it, non-hereditary—he could only break it up with the consent of the proprietor, with whom, it would follow, he would have to arrange the rent payable on it. In the meantime, the fields comprising the enclosure were entered in the muntakhib asámiwár with the group of fields forming his holding. In theory the process of record may have been correct, but in practice, when a tenant has been recorded with occupancy rights over a certain area, he is never dispossessed under the operation of the above rule, and his right becomes absolute.

Status of hereditary tenants.

The enquiry into rights of tenants was conducted by villages. In each village a statement was prepared showing the area of the land, the names of owners and tenants, and their respective statements as to the length of occupancy of the tenancy. On this document orders were passed defining the status of the In case of disagreement between the owner and tenant as to length of possession, the parties were referred to a regular suit, and a like course was adopted if the tenant made a claim for proprietary rights. The statement was called the chittamuzárián, and in the majority of villages is still to be found in The status of tenants found recorded at rethe village basta. gular settlement with rights of occupancy have generally been considered to be held under Section 6 of Act XVI of 1887. In a few cases, where the tenant was specially recorded hereditary with the consent of the owners of the land, rights under Section 8 of the above Act have been allowed. The grant of rights

as málik makbúza practically eliminated all cases which would otherwise have fallen under Section 5 of the Tenancy Act.

At the revision of settlement no new enquiry into the rights of tenants was made. As a rule the old entries were carried on, and only those corrections made where the entries in the old settlement record had not been made in accordance with the orders then passed. But in 106 villages, mostly in the Phalia tahsíl, tenants were found to have been recorded as muzária panáhi or muzária shartia. It is nowhere stated why the tenants were so recorded, whether it was a superior title given to men who had previously been tenants-at-will, or whether, as in the case of the Gurdáspur district, it was an inferior title granted to men who had previously been recorded with occupancy rights. It appears, however, that these panáhi tenants are those to whom Captain Waterfield, in his Settlement Report, stated that leases had been In the Gujrat tahsil leases had been given to 221 individuals holding 394 acres; in Khárián tahsíl to 110 persons holding 269 acres; and in Phália tahsíl to 558 individuals holding 2,080 acres. In Appendix 8, Statement XIX of revised Settlement Report, an abstract of land held by tenants is given. Tenants are there divided into classes, which may be called hereditary tenants, tenants-at-will and "others." The detail of those classed as "others" is shown below, and it will be seen that the number and area held by these in each tabsil agrees with the number and area shown as being held on lease :-

Tansil.	right of paney petui propi who continued to the propination of the pro	Accorded a right of occupancy in perpetuity by proprietors who cannot oust.		protec- for a e not to rise within term.	tion term by to rise with	protec- for a utliable of rent n that rm.	Total.		
	Number of individuals.	Amount of land in acres.	Number of individuals.	Aniount of land in acres.	"		Number of individuals.	Amount of land in acres.	
Gujrát Khárián Phália	94	240 223 441	102 8 356	97 29 1,391	8 8 79	57 17 248	221 110 558	394 269 2,080	
Total District	328	904	466	1,517	95	322	889	2,743	

The case of panáhi tenants was a matter of special reference to Government from the Gurdáspur district, and orders were passed in letter No. 4892, dated 4th August 1890, from Secretary to Financial Commissioner, deciding how such entries were to be dealt with. The orders were briefly to the effect that, subject to the provisions of Section 37 of the Punjab Land Revenue Act, 1887, such entries should be repeated in the jamabandi,

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and that mutations in these panáhi tenures should be entered in

the register of mutations. In any case coming before the

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tary tenants.

courts in which the status of such cultivators is in dispute, the correspondence published in 1889, in No. 40 of the Selections from the records of the Financial Commissioner's Office, should Status of heredi- be referred to. It was further ordered that for statistical purposes panáhi tenants should be treated as occupancy tenants, and that in disputes as to the status of panahi tenants under the Tenancy Act, the cases should only be taken up by the Deputy Commissioner himself, experienced Assistant Commissioners, or the Revenue Assistant of the District. As regards the panáhi tenants of this district, there should be little difficulty in decid-

ing their status, should any cases be filed by the parties.

Reuts of occu-

When rights of occupancy were granted at regular settlepancy tenants at ment, the rents of such tenants were also fixed. In the majority regular settlement. of cases cash rents were fixed. The rent fixed was the land revenue payable on the holding and in addition 25 per cent. on the revenue as málikána. The object was to allow a clear profit of 15 per cent above the revenue of the land to the proprietor, the remaining 10 per cent. going to pay cesses. In a few instances in the Phália tahsíl, where hereditary tenants were found in possession of land with a well attached, the periodical repair of whose shaft was made by the proprietor, málikána as much as 40 per cent. over and above the revenue was given, 15 of this was calculated for the use of the perishable article, viz., the well, and 25 per cent. for the land.

In no case mitigation admissible.

Sometimes when the mind hesitated between pronouncing the cultivator to have the prescriptive title to the proprietary right and the other alternative of declaring him only an hereditary tenant, it appeared at first sight that if the latter course were adopted, the tenant had a claim to mitigation of the amount of málikána awarded. But this could not have been admitted without damaging the property value of the land, and as the inexpediency of this was the principle by which the officers were guided, the full amount of málikána was in almost every case adjudged payable. Again it occasionally happened that a proprietor expressed a wish not to take milikána from the tenant, even though he were hereditary. In these cases also it was deemed necessary for the same reasons to enter the tenant as liable to the málikána demand. The proprietor might waive its collection, if he so pleased, but the property value would have been secured to the land.

Rents at revised settlement.

At revised settlement, except in cases where the rent of occupancy tenants had been raised by a suit or by agreement, the rents were not disturbed. In the Khárián and Phália tahsils proprietors generally raised the rents of such tenants 5 or 10 per cent. always with the consent of the tenant. Gujrát the rents were often raised by the courts from 10 to 20 or 25 per cent., and from 15 to 20, 25 to 30, sometimes even to 40 or 50 per cent. By agreement or arbitration rents were occasionally raised to 60 or 100 per cent: on the Government

demand. The different manner in which these rents were entered in the records of the previous settlements requires to be specially noticed. At regular settlement málikána was usually entered in the records as 25 per cent., this 25 per cent. included 10 per cent. cesses; at revised settlement the málikána was entered in addition to, and separate from cesses, the whole of such málisána going to the proprietor. It therefore follows that settlement. málikána entered at revised settlement at 15 per cent. is the same as málikána entered at 25 per cent. at regular settlement, and not less as it at first appears.

Captain Waterfield's remarks upon the subject of rent are instructive:-

Former views regarding rent.

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Rents at revised

"In Sikh times the proprietors were badly off. The kardans used to take from the cultivator a share of the produce, sometimes 50, 40 or 33 per cent. of the gross produce, and in addition to this the weighman's fees and carriage, and sometimes nazarana and other presents in cash. In years of drought, or in seasons which had brought locusts, they would take cash, calculated at the average payments for past years, either upon ploughs or the acre. No profits were enjoyed by the proprietors, save by the chandhris and other useful men. who would receive very favourable terms from the Government representative. At the regular settlement, cash rents were generally fixed to be paid by tenants upon the same principle as that on which the landowners agreed to pay the Government demand. In addition to this, proprietary profits were added, very often by the Settlement official, from 10 to 30 per cent. upon the Government demand, generally 15 per cent. (the soil has something to say to it); if, more, the proprietor was probably sharper than usual, or had received some advice and assistance from the Settlement Department. The landowners were glad enough to get even this. In some cases, from tenants who were declared to have a right of occupancy, and happened to be relativos of shareholders or Sayads, fakirs and such like, no further rent was taken, and even tenants-at-will generally escaped rent, from a fear which the landowners had that they might be bound down for the future to any cash rent they might then accept. Indeed it was also feared that the tenants-at-will, by paying rent in cash, might acquire some right of occupancy, cash rents being to their vague understanding in some way connected with the privileges of hereditary tenants; some few hereditary tenants, and far more tenants-at-will, coutinued to pay in kind."

During the settlement of 1891-92, at the time of measurements, the details of rents were given with greater fullness than pancy tenants in in Statement No. XVI. The following statement gives an abstract of the different rents paid by occupancy tenants, and the areas on which such rents are paid.

Rents of occn-

•	hich rent at re- es, with or with- ana is paid.	ing at	a fixed a their	Tenant ing at r ed by ar age r	ent fix. n acre-	Tenants	s paying	7 produc	e rents.
Tansil.	Acres on which venue rates, w out malikana	Acres.	Rent.	Acres.	Rent.	One-half.	One-half. Two-fifths. One-fourth and under.		Total.
Gnjrát Khárián Phália	27,139 26,055 2,768	359	265 526 60	66	230 169 62	865 434 3	643 36	1,221 497 55	2,729 967 58
Total District	55,962	543	851	192	461	1,302	679	1,773	3,754

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Rights and Tenures. Enhancement of occupancy tenants.

Towards the close of settlement 1891-92, a large number of enhancement of rent cases were filed, and in the majority it was found that since revised settlement rent of occupancy tenants had seldom been enhanced, and that the prevailing rents were málikána at 15 or 25 per cent. in addition to the land reveof nue assessed on the tenants' holdings. The reason for the rents not having been enhanced was that the proprietor's had not previously sued; in cases where suits had been brought. during the currency of the settlement malikana had been raised to 100 and to even 200 per cent. on the revenue. In dealing with such cases, in which tenants held their occupancy rights under Section 6 of the Panjab Tenancy Act, it was assumed that the málikána should be at the rate of 75 per cent. on the revenue, and the real question for decision was, to what 'extent it was advisable to raise the rents at the time that the land revenue was also being enhanced. It was felt that in dealing with a large number of cases some definite rule of enhancement should be adopted, by which on the one hand the proprietor should receive a substantial enhancement, but which at the same time should not be so great as to crush the tenants. The principle adopted was that where the málikana was found to be 15 per cent. it was raised to six annas per rupee of revenne; where the málikána was 20 per cent. formerly it was raised to seven annas per rupee of revenue; and where málikána was formerly 25 per cent. it was raised to eight annas per rupee of revenue. Attempts were at first made to get the parties to agree on the amount of rent, but it was found that such

Rents of tenantsat-will. reasons.

Table No. XVI shows the area on which produce rents are paid, and the proportion of the produce taken by proprietors from tenants-at-will, and Table No. XXI shows the prevailing cash rents paid by tenants-at-will. On the subject of rent in the district the remark made by Captain Waterfield at the time of the revised settlement may be quoted, as with the greater stress of population and the keener competition for land, these apply with at least equal weight to the present state of things.

"Tenants-at-will have as a rule, been superseded by

attempts usually, even if they are successful, raised bad feeling, and that it was in practice better to fix the rent by a definite

ment of cash rents, produce rents remained as they were found, as no enhancement is allowed under the act except for special

The above of course refers only to cases of enhance-

with at least equal weight to the present state of things.

"Tenants-at-will have, as a rule, been superseded by
"the proprietors in the cultivation of all the better land, and
"what remains to them is usually the worst under cultivation.
"The rate of rent as entered in our settlement record is, therefore,
"no sure guide to the gross rental. A tenant-at-will paying no
"proprietary profits, but merely the average rate of the village
"upon the very worst land, may in fact be paying a heavy rent
by lifting a share of the burden of the revenue disproportionate
"to the quality of the land, to the great advantage of the pro"prietary body."

Against this, however, must be set the fact that a large area recorded as cultivated by tenants-at-will is, in reality, cultivated by the proprietor of the land, who holds his own mortgaged land, and that his mortgaged land is probably the best of the land of his holding.

At the time of measurements a more detailed statement cash rent tenants at will of the rents of tenants-at-will was prepared, showing the detail 1891.92. of each class of soil and the total cash rent. The figures for talisils are given below.

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,	•	ea as ments.	D		F CASH			r
Tahsíl.	Detail of soil.	otal cultivated area as shown by measurements	shown by measure Area on which rent at revouse rates is paid:		xed on lding.	Rent lated acreag	ent at the rate of a pand a bigah of cultivation.	
	Tahsíl. Detail of soil. Lotul cultivated shown by meast		Area on which at revenue is paid:	Area in acres.	Rent in rupees.	Area in acres.	Ren in rupees.	Rept at to pand cultiva
Gujrat {	Cháhi Sailáb Báráni	75,908 26,085 151,719	3,020	936 370 1,662		1,227 159 652		5,372 1,033 3,694
	Total	253,712	11,219	2,968	8,916	2,038	4,476	10,099
PHALIA {	Cháhi Sailáb Báráni	123,074 17,274 111,574	669	4,867 111 2,146		1,690 396 5,604		203 16 68
·	Total	251,922	9,492	7,124	10,295	7,690	10,196	284
KHARIAN {	Cháhi Sailáb Báráni	10,704 8,446 239,193	138			282 438 5,686		62 20 650
	Total	258,343	5,677	8,471	13,298	6,406	10,551	732
TOTAL DIS-	Cháhi Sailáb Báráni	209,686 51,805 502,486	3,827	. 588		3,199 993 11,942	,	5,637 1,069 4,409
	Total	763,977	26,388	18,563	32,509	16,134	25,223	11,118

The figures for the Gujrát tahsíl show that whereas cash rents at revenue rates are taken on 11,219 acres, true cash rents are only taken on 5,006 acres, and a rent of a pand a bigah is taken on 10,099 acres, which, though not a cash rent, bears more resemblance to a cash rent than to a produce rent. The average rate of the cash rents works out at Rs. 3 and Rs. 2-3-1 per acre. In Tahsil Phália rent at revenue rates is taken on 9,492 acres, cash rents on 14,814 acres, and rent at a pand a bigah on 284 acres. The average true cash rents per acre are Rs. 1-7-1 and Rs. 1-5-2. In Tahsil Khárián rent at revenue rates is taken on 5,677 acres, cash rents on 14,877 acres, and rent at a pand a bigah on 5,637 acres. The

Chapter III, D. Village Communities, Rights and Tenures.

Produce rents in 1891-92.

average cash rents are Rs. 1-9-1 and Rs. 1-10-4 per acre. enquiry shows that in the whole district on 3.45 per cent. of cultivated area rents at revenue rates are paid; on 2.43 per cent. cash rents fixed on the holding; and on 2.11 per cent. cash rents fixed by an acreage rate are paid. In addition rent at a pand a sigah is taken on 1.45 per cent. of cultivated area.

The detail of land on which produce rents were paid by tenants-at-will, as ascertained at measurements, is shown below.—

					PRODUCE RENTS PAID BY TENANTS-					
Tahsíl.		Dota	ail of soil	•	At ½ pro- duco.	At & pro- duco.	At 3 produce and under.			
					Acres.	Acres.	Acres.			
Gujrať	{	Cháhi Sailáb Báráni	 	•••	12,213 4,586 21,228	945 270 1,493	4,203 267 3,538			
	!		Total		38,024	2,704	8,008			
PHALIA	{	Cháhi Sailáb Báráni	•••		947 1,490 1,169	1,105 620 695	17,941 1,559 13,538			
			Total	• • •	3,606	2,420	33,038			
KHARIAN	{	Cháhi Sailáb Báráni			441 1,260 25,407	80 720	455 39 7,295			
•			Total	,.,	27,108	800	7,789			
Total District	{	Cháhi Sailáb Báráni	***	•••	13,601 7,336 47,804	2,130 890 2,908	22,599 1,865 24,371			
			Total	***	68,741	5,928	48,835			

Rights of posses-

These rights formed the subject of a special enquiry at sion in pasture land. regular settlement, and the statement of the case as found by Captain Mackenzie may be reproduced here: "In the records, "especially of the Khárián tahsíl, many proprietors will be found "to have large tracts of culturable waste in their exclusive "possession, while the revenue is paid only on the cultivation. "When compiling the records, this was noticed as an anomaly. "If this culturable waste was really the exclusive property of the "holder, he should pay revenue upon it, otherwise he would "have the power to bring it under cultivation immediately after "khewat was arranged, and so derange the rate intended to press "equally upon all according to means. If he would not agree to "this, he could not be deemed exclusive proprietor of the land,

"and it should be entered as common property. Enquiry re- Chapter III, D. "sulted in this: many such pieces of land had been in exclusive "possession for a long while; almost every one in some villages, "whether tenants or proprietors, possessed such enclosures of "less or greater extent. The custom had, nevertheless, been to "assess each man according to cultivation only. Such was still "the wish of all, none would allow that these enclosed pieces of sion in pasture land. "pasture were the exclusive property of the possessor, and yet, "so long as the commonalty in the village remained undivided, "no one wished the holders to be dispossessed. There were two "questions to be decided-one financial, the other affecting the "right of the property. As usual, the Settlement Officer had to "decide them both, after a thorough enquiry into the subject; "therefore, after looking at it in all its bearings, past, present, "and prospective, it was arranged, with the approval of the "eommunity, that these lands should be entered as part of the "possession of the holder; that if he cultivated them he should "pay revenue at half rates; that he should be maintained in "their possession so long as the village commonalty remained "undivided, but that where partition might be made, these lands "should be thrown into the commonalty liable to division. "proceeds of these half rates should be thrown into the Shamilat "of the taraf or patti, provided that partitions have not taken "place and there consequently be a common fund." The result of this decision, as far as it has been acted upon, has been that land brought under cultivation after settlement, and which consequently was not assessed at settlement, pays revenue at half rates into the common fund of the village, where it is then rateably divided among all the proprietors of the village.

In the villages bordering on the Jhelam, disputes connected with new land thrown up by the rivers were keenly contested, regular settlement. and a correct decision was difficult. The Sikandri hadd was the general rule in force, but the difficulty in its working is stated by Captain Mackenzie as follows:-" When new land had "been thrown up, the successful claimants were doubtless gene-"rally the proprietors of those villages on the same side of the "stream. It was the natural, and consequently it would generally "be found to be the existing state of things. But where villages "had lost much of their lands, and they at some future time "saw land thrown up on the same spot where, although now "across the stream, and adjoining the villages on the opposite "bank, they imagined their old lands were situated, they would "always be found ignoring and denying the law of Sikandari "hada, and laying claim to the land, and, in one instance at least "that of Dárápar versus Rasúl, such a claim had been allowed by "previous authorities. After a little experience the principles, "upon which these cases could be satisfactorily decided, were "found to be as follows:-

"1st.—Between contiguous villages, draw a line from "the point where the common boundary ends, "perpendicular to the general direction of the "flow of the river.

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Rights of posses-

Alluvial cases at

Chapter III, D.

Village Communities, Rights and Tenures.

Enquiry at revised settlement.

"2nd.—Between opposite villages, if the land in dispute
"be newly thrown up, let the main stream be
"the boundary; if the land be old, the mere
"changing of the course of the stream cannot be
"a plea for disturbing possession."

An enquiry into the customary law on the rivers Chenáb and Jhelam was made at revised settlement, and proceedings were drawn up, strictly limited to recording usages which had formerly prevailed. At the same time enquiries were instituted as to the possibility of obtaining the consent of villages on both sides of the river to a fixed boundary. Unanimous consent could not be obtained, and the scheme was given up, as it was found that any attempt to fix the boundaries would be attended with discord and probably much litigation, and that success could not be hoped for without a legislative enactment empowering an officer to authoritatively fix the boundaries.

Riparian boundaries.

On the Chenáb, throughout its course between the boundaries of the Gujrát district on its right (north-west) bank, and the Siálkot and Gujránwala districts on its left (south-east) bank, the Hadd Sakandri prevails. The same custom prevails on the Jhelam down to the point where the Khárián tahsíl ends. the point the Barhna nala joins the Jhelam, and owing primarily to the autumual floods brought down by this nala, the Ihelam below the junction of the Barhna becomes so variable in its main stream, and so destructive in its action, that the zamindárs of the villages on both banks have long since divided the alluvial lands permanently between them, and each village has a fixed boundary which is unaffected by the changes the river may take. This is known as the warpar or burji (or bati) The rules and usages recorded by the people banna system. were as follows:-

The Jhelam river.

Between the landowners of the Khárián tahsíl and those on the opposite bank of the Jhelam river in the Jhelam district:

(1) The main stream is the boundary—that used by the boats in October, when the river is at its lowest. (2) Accretion belongs to the village to whose lands it has accrued. (3) Land separated by the main stream of the river, not washed away, will belong to the village to whose lands it may be adjacent. (4) Land thrown up between two main streams should be divided between the opposite banks. (5) If land accruing is again separated by the main stream, the ownership does not change. Between the Phália tahsíl and the Jhelam district: no main stream boundary, the limits of estates will always remain the same, to be decided by the maps.

The Chenáb river.

Between the districts of Gujrát and Gujránwála: (1) The main stream will be the boundary; the stream in which boats ply in Maggar (November). (2) Accretion belongs to the village to whose land it has accrued or become adjacent. If an entire estate is washed away, and is again thrown up in the same place, they will conform to the Government orders. If an estate in rear of the one washed away suffe by diluvion, it is

only entitled to receive by accretion up to its former boundary, as shown in the map. It cannot claim more land. (3) Any land, detached as it stands by the main stream, will remain the property of those who cultivated it the year before. (4) An island thrown up between two main streams to be divided equally between the opposite banks. Between the districts of Gujrát and Siálkot: (1) The main stream to be the boundary, that in which the boats ply in November. But between the villages of Kuri and Shikáh the boundaries now existing will remain; as also up the Tawi river between the following villages:—

Rájpur Margolah.
Chak Larham Bhalíhál.
Kotla Parmánand Dariya.
Maddan Panjpar.
Rangarh Chak Bhagwán.
Surakhpur Kuri Shikáh.

(2) Accretion will belong to the village to which it accrnes.
(3) Land only separated by the main stream will not change ownership. (4) An island thrown up, separating two main streams, to be divided. (5) The ownership in such an island will not be again disturbed by the existence of only one main stream the next year. River villages on the Chenáb inter se will be bound by Revenue Surveyors' boundaries laid down; any accretion beyond these to appertain to the village to which it has accrued. The Bhimbar nala. The boundaries of villages will always remain as laid down at settlement.

In the margin is given the number of headmen in the three

Tahsíl.		Zaildárs.	Village headmen.		
Gujrát Phália Khárián		17 16 17	1,044 612 787		
Total		50	2,443		

tahsíls of the district. The village headmen succeed to their office by hereditary right, subject to the rules under the Land Revenue Act. Each village, or in large villages, each main division of the village, has one or more who represent their clients in their dealings with the Gov-

ernment, are responsible for the collection of revenue, and are bound to assist in the prevention and detection of crime. Chief headmen or all lambardars were appointed first at revised settlement in the great majority of villages. The object in making such appointment was that where there were several headmen in a village, one should be selected who should be responsible for the introduction and carrying out of all Government orders, and to whom Government might look as the representative of the whole village. In practice this was not carried out, as chief headmen were appointed in villages in which there were two or sometimes only one lambardar. In large villages the appointment of two chief headmen was occasionally made. In respect of the collection of land revenue the chief headmen possess no special authority or responsibility. The zaildars who were first appointed in 1867, were originally elected by the

Village Communities, Rights and Tenures.

The Chenáb river.

Village officers.

Chapter III, D.

Village Communities, Rights and Tenures.

Village officers.

headmen of the zail, the boundaries of which were, as far as possible, so fixed as to correspond with the tribal distribution of the people. The zaildárs stand in much the same relation to the headmen of the zail, as the chief headmen to those of his village. The appointment of chief headmen and of zaildárs differs from that of headmen, inasmuch as no hereditary claim to these offices is regarded, appointments being made according to the fitness of the candidates, and if necessary for the better determination of the merits of contending candidates, votes of the headmen can be taken for the purpose of filling up vacancies among zaildárs. But in the appointment of headmen and chief headmen election may not be resorted to, even as an aid to the decision.

Zuildárs.

The names of the zails and the prevailing tribes in each are shown below:—

Tahsíl.	ZAIL.		ZAIL.		Annual land revenue.		Prevailing castes or tribes.
				Rs.			
Риаста.	Bár Gondal Bár Soháwah Mong Rasúl Bár Sháhi Danwáli Bár Dingáh Helán Phália Khás Phália Ránjah Kádirabad Ránjah Kádirabad Ránjah Kádirabad East Phália Pakheri Jokalián Pindi Dhokerlán Pahriánwáli		31 20 20 20 20 19 24 22 9 24 25 18 18 21 18 20	18,860 17,740 24,781 14,527 13,625 24,870 17,065 18,840 7,780 9,891 19,000 15,480 16,540 17,913 17,830 17,395	Gondal. Do. Khohar. Waraitch. Gujar. Waraitch. Tarár. Ránjah. Tarár. Ránjah. Tarár. Do. Do. Do. Dhakar. Waraitch.		

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Zaildárs.

The remuneration of village headmen is by a cess of 5 per cent. on the revenue assessed on the estate. The proceeds of this cess is divided among the headmen equally or by shares. The remuneration of zaildars and chief headmen was fixed in 1867 at the proceeds of a cess of one per cent. on the revenue. The chief headman realised this cess in his village, and the zaildár realised a like cess from all villages in his zail. These cesses amounting to 2 per cent. of the revenue were collected in addition to the land revenue assessed. From the new settlement of 1891-92, the zuildári cess was done away with and the remuneration of zaildárs was fixed at one per cent. on the revenue, which amount was collected as a deduction from the gross assessment; the one per cent. for chief headmen remained as a cess in addition to the land revenue.

Remuneration.

But in addition to the amount of remuneration given by Additional remunerthe realisation of the above cesses, grants of land had been ation at made to the chief headmen during settlement of 1868. The settlement. principal of these grants was that in each village two acres of cultivated land, or three acres of culturable, were given for every 100 acres cultivated in the village. Thus in a village of 2,000 acres cultivated, the chief headmen received 20 acres cultivated, or 30 acres culturable. Culturable was given as the rule, and when there was no choice, but to give cultivated, it was always chosen from common land, or from the lambardár's own holding, or from his tenant's land. According to this method the following grants were made:---

Chapter III, D.											
						LAN	D.			TOTAL.	
Village Communities, Rights and Tenures.	TAHSIL.			Waste.		Muáfi.		At half rates.			ea.
Additional remuneration at revised settlement.				Land.	Value.	Land.	Value.	Land.	Value.	Land in acres.	Value in rupces.
	Gujrát		***	1,516	765	2,260	2,427	349	· · 184	4,125	3,376
	Khárián	1.	•••	2,204	846	1,129	998	211	91	3,644	1,935
	Phália	•••	•••	483	475	2,473	922		***.	2,956	1,397
	Total Dis	trict	•••	4,203	2,086	5,962	4,347	560	275	10,725	6,708

The cess at one per cent. on the Government demand gave Rs. 5,916, so the total remuneration of chief headmen amounted to rather more than 2 per cent. on the Government demand. This remuneration in land was not shown in the muaft register, nor did it appear in any district register, it is therefore essential to give some further explanation. It appears that of the land classed above that termed "muáfi" and "at half rates" was cultivated land, which when the revenue was distributed was either kept out of the distribution, or which assessed at only half the revenue. As regards waste land the value placed on it was purely fictitious, it had nothing to do with the assessment of the land. This waste land was usually granted out of the common land of the village, and in the records the name of the chief headman was shown against the plot with the condition recorded that the chief headman had the right of cultivation in such land, and that it was not liable to partition with the remainder of the common land. The grant, in effect, gave a proprietary right in such land, the only difference being that the chief headman was not recorded proprietor.

To Zaildárs.

Much the same procedure was adopted in making grants to zaildars in addition to the remnneration of the cess at one per cent. on the revenue. It was considered that the amount of the remuneration by the one per cent. cess was not sufficient, and that a payment in this manner led to inequality. The object of the grants was that in forming the zaildars into three classes, the average remuneration of those of each class should be approximately the same. Seven zaildars were put in the first class, seventeen in the second class, and the remainder in the third class, but there is no record to show what zails were placed in each class; and, an examination of the grants made, shows that the actual object was lost sight of, and in reality the largest grants were made to

the most influential zaildárs. The following grants were made Chapter III, D. to zaildárs, as such, in addition to their remuneration at one per cent. on the revenue :-

,		ATED AT	Cultu	RABLE.	Total.		
TANSIL.	Land in acres.	Value in rupces.	Land in acres.	Value in rupees.	Land in acres.	Value in rupees.	
a : 4	051	200	700		1.001	4.0	
Gujrát	851	380	180	69	1,031	449	
Khárián	249	108	821	310	1,070	418	
Phália	110	38	557	209	667	247	
Total District	1,210	526	1,558	588	2,768	1,114	

Village Communities, Rights and Tenures.

To Zaildárs.

At the revision of settlement, 1891-92, the question of the How deallt with disposal of these grants which had originally been made with 1891-92. out authority came up for consideration. Orders were passed by Government that the action of Government at previous settlement in putting the person for the time being selected to fill the office of chief headman in exclusive possession of such allotment, was probably ultra vires, and that from the date on which the new settlement takes effect, the Government must disconnect itself from this arrangement. The whole of the old grants were ordered to be resumed from the date of the new settlement, and in the case of chief headmen, a cash inám, equal to the revenue newly assessed on the land comprised within the former grant, was given, subject to the condition that the amount of such inám in any village was not to exceed one per cent. on the revenue of the village. In the case of the zaildári grants, they were all resumed from the date of the new settlement, as they were originally made without sanction, and there did not appear to be any necessity for such grants.

In 1893, the question as to the policy of retaining chief headmen was decided, and orders were passed that chief headmen need only be retained in villages in which there were three or more lambardárs, but that in villages in which chief headmen existed, the office would not lapse until the death of the present On the abolition of the post in any village the one per cent. cess in that village will cease. If previous to the abolition of the office, the chief headman held an inám attached to his office, such inám will be converted into a zamíndári inám, and be given to some influential man within that zail in which the village is situated, provided that the total amount of such inám shall not exceed Rs. 40, to one person without special sanction

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The consequence will be the gradual abolition of the post of chief headman in small villages, and the amalgamation of a large number of very petty grants to form a few substantial zamindári ináms. When the scheme shall have come into full operation, the number of headmen and chief headmen will be as shown below:—

How deal; with at sottlement, 1891-92.	,	Tahsíl,			Number of headmen.	Number of chief headmen.	Ala lami bardári ináms.	Zamíndári ináms.	
	Gujrát Khárián Phália	 Total		556 543 330 1,438	1,044 787 612 2,443	90 43 57 190	Rs. 1,313 . 384 731 2,428	Rs. 2,071 1,655 1,238 4,964	

Patwárís.

Each tahsil is divided into a number of eircles to each of which a patwúri is appointed for the purpose of keeping up the land revenue records of each village. The limits of the circles. were revised in 1889, and were framed with regard to the area and the number of fields. The patráris are made to reside in their circles; appropriate dwelling-houses with offices attached have been built in the principal village of each circle at the joint. expense of the communities. In case of such houses falling into disrepair, repairs have to be made by the villages of the circle, or a new residence built on a standard plan at a cost of Rs. 150. The pay of patwaris is met from the patwar fund, the income of which is derived from a cess of Rs. 4-11-0 per cent. on the land revenue, which is collected and paid by the villages at the same time as the land revenue. For purposes of pay, patwaris are divided into three grades, on Rs. 14, Rs. 12, and Rs. 10 per mensem; they receive their pay quarterly at the headquarters of their tahsil. A limited number of assistant patwaris are also appointed to assist in large circles, and to learn practical work. Appointments to patwaris are made by selection. from tabsil registers of candidates; hereditary claims are only recognised in eases in which the previous incumbent took his office by inhoritance, or who held the office for ten years. The number of patwaris in 1891-92 is shown below:—

Tausie.			Number of				
		1st grade.	2nd grade.	3rd grade.	Total.	assistant patwárís.	
Gujrát Khárián Phália			35 28 29	36 28 29	17 14 16	88 70 74	4. 4.
Total District		92	, 93	47	232	12	

The average size of the circles can be seen from the follow- Chapter III, D. ing statement, taken from statistics of 1891-92:—

					Average per Patwari.		
		'AHSIL.	•		 Fields.	Khatauni hold- ings.	
Gujrát	•••	•••	•••		 4,133	1,397	
Khárián		•	•••	•••	 4,660	1,480	
Phália	•••	•••	•••	•••	 3,477	874	
Total District					 4,085	1,255	

Communities. Rights and Tenures.

Village servants

The blacksmith-

Patwárís.

His duties towards the landowner are as follows: He must repair all agricultural implements, such as the dátri, khurpa, hal, or kamins. kahi, kohára, with his own iron and charcoal, and provide new ones, the landowner finding the iron, but not the charcoal. new karrah, sugar-boiler, has to be made, the landowner must provide the iron, and pay full working wages or half wages with charcoal, and one meal per diem. The relation between landowner and blacksmith can only be broken off at the sowing of the spring crop. The landowner is, on his part, bound towards the blacksmith as follows: At the spring harvest he must pay him one bhari per plough of wheat or barley. A bhari or sheaf is to be as much as can be bound up in the length of three straws. Also one pai of four topás, or eight sérs per house. By house is not meant a separate habitation, but a family cultivating in common. At the autumn harvest he must give him one sheaf of bájra, jowár, munjí, and makai, each sheaf as much as he can carry, and also one pai = eight sers of the grain of each of these products; also one topa, or two sers of moth and This custom of giving grain is called phakkah. spring or autumn harvest the landowner, on receipt of a dátri or reaping-hook, must present him with a bundle from each ' crop; a bundle to be about the third of a sheaf. If a zamindár or lambardár cut down a tree, the roots and branches are the perquisite of the lohár for his charcoal. At the marriage of a daughter in the village he receives one rupee from the family of the bridegroom, and at the marriage of a son, if he accompany the wedding procession (barát), he receives the same. festivals, tehár, he receives a meal for one man.

The carpenter-

The landowner provides the wood, but this artizan has to make and keep in order all the agricultural implements. He has also to give three days free labour towards the building of a new house, or the repairing of a house. He will receive wages for further time expended, the wood to be provided by the landowner. If any work is done on the landowner's premises, the Village Communities, Rights and Tenures.

The carpenter— Tarkhán. bark and the chips belong to the landowner; if at the carpenter's house, to the carpenter. Their relations can only be broken off, like those of the blacksmith, at the sowing of the spring crop. He receives from the landowners the same fees and gifts as the blacksmith, and he receives one rupee on the setting up of a sugar-mill. When the cane is being crushed, he receives $1\frac{1}{4}$ sér of gur and a handful of sugarcane, and a well-bucket, tind, full of cane juice daily. At marriages and festivals he receives the same as the blacksmith. When building a house or doing any other private work for a landowner, he receives his food daily. At sowing time he accompanies the landowner the first day, and receives one topa = two sérs, or 4lbs., of wheat from each.

The potter— Kumhar.

He must provide all the earthen vessels required by the cultivators for household purposes, the well-buckets for the Persian-wheels, the large dishes for the sugar-mills. He must also provide what are required for marriages; he can only be employed or dismissed like the blacksmith and carpenter at the sowing of the spring harvest. At each harvest he receives exactly as much again as the blacksmith; at marriages the same as the blacksmith, or more or less according to the means of the cultivator. When he provides a cultivator with any vessels at his house, he gets something in the way of grain, the amount of which has never been clearly defined. The day a sugar-mill is started, he receives two well-buckets, tinds, of cane juice, and the day the mill stops, the same; also \(\frac{1}{4}\) sér of gur daily. At sowing time, if he convey the seed to the field on his own head or on his donkey, he gets one topa = two sers. At the time of cutting the crop, if he provide the reapers with watervessels and cups, he receives one bundle, or one-third of a sheaf, of that crop.

The barber— Hajám or nái. This individual is responsible for the regular shaving of the community, and has to convey the intelligence of all domestic occurrences to the relations. He has to attend upon and administer to the wants of guests and strangers. At each harvest he receives from each threshing floor a sheaf, and grain in an indefinite quantity, according to the means of the owner. On the last day of the working of the sugar-mill, he receives four tinds or well-buckets of cane juice, and two sérs of gur from each of his employers. He receives other presents on the happening of domestic occurrences, but they are not fixed, and depend upon the means of the parties. When sent upon any business by a landowner, he receives his food, and when accompanying him to any marriage or funeral, he receives some present from the house he goes to.

The washerman—Dhobi.

Has to wash all the clothes of the husbandmen and mend them, both the clothes of the men and of the women. He has to provide table clothes for marriage and funeral feasts. He can only be dismissed as the blacksmith. He receives at each harvest the same as the barber, and besides that, at marriages and funerals, customary presents according to the circumstances of Chapter III, D. the husbandmen. If he goes to any house to mend clothes, he receives his food, and if he accompanies any landowner to a marriage and funeral, he receives such presents as may be given

Are of two kinds, the athari and the sepi. The athari is a domestic servant always in attendance upon the husbandmen,a man of all work; he has to carry manure and plough; he has to provide the untanned leathern, ropes for harnessing bullocks, also winnowing baskets and leathern sieves. The sepi, who works for several families, works for each in turn, and twice a year at harvest time he has to provide the above-mentioned Both athari and sepi have to plaster the houses of their masters. He can only be dismissed like the lohár. athari receives 12 topás = 24 sérs in the máni of S or 9 mán; also food twice a day, and a blanket and shoes. When the crops are cut, he receives a bundle from each crop. The sepi receives 1 pui = 4 topás = 8 sérs grain at each harvest, and a bundle of each crop. At the end of the bearing of the cotton crop, they are both entitled to one picking of the field, and at the closing of the mill, to the produce of one sugar-boiling. receive one-third of every hide, and presents at marriages and deaths, according to the circumstances of the husbandman. sepi is entitled to his food when working for his master.

The mochi, cobbler, has to provide shoes for every landowner, and to mend all leather-work, and to provide whips, and Cobbler. blinkers or cups for the bullock's eyes. He can only be dismissed like the blacksmith. At the spring harvest he gets two sheaves per plough, and two pai = 16 sérs of grain; at the autumn harvest two sheaves and one pai = 8 sérs of grain, as fakkah; also one cotton picking at the end of the season, one sugar-boiling of gur, and at the end of the sugar-crushing, four tinds or wellbuckets of cane juice; also he gets presents at marriages, funerals and festivals, and two-thirds of every hide.

The máshki, water-carrier and baker, carries water, pro- The máshki—vides water for the threshing floors, carries the palanquin at baker. marriages, cooks the wedding breakfast. He receives one rupee half-yearly, and if he provides water for the harvesters, he gets one small sheaf out of the crop; if for the threshing floor, he gets two topás or four sérs of grain. For carrying the palanquin he gets Rs. 2 or 3 for each marriage, and takes his wages for cooking the breakfast.

There is also a custom that if either the potter or the carpenter help to carry the seed to the field at sowing time, he gets penter carrying seed from every cultivator, whether proprietor or tenant, about one topa measure of grain, more or less, according to the amount of land. This fee is called biswat. No other village servant is entitled to this. The same relations exist between all village servants (save the parchit and mirási) and all members of the cultivating class, whether landowners or only tenants.

Village Communities, Rights and Tenures.

The sweeper— Chúra or Musalli.

The mochi-

Potter and car-

Chapter III, D. Village Communities, Rights and Tenures.

and their duties.

The duties of mirásis or village bards are as follows:—To get by heart, and to be able to repeat from memory off hand, the pedigrees of the heads of the families within the tribe. They were always appealed to in former times in the case of any dispute about hereditary property. They have to attend Mirásis—or bards upon the guests of their masters. The agricultural classes keep and their duties. no household servants but these, and would consider it infra dig. to wait upon their own guests. They have to accompany their masters on visits of condolence or congratulation; they summon relations from far and near; they have to accompany the daughter going to her father-in-law's house, or the son's wife going to visit her paternal home. The mirasi and his wife have to prepare all such things as may be required at a marriage feast—turmeric, salt, pepper—20 days before the wedding; to inform all relations (gand legina) and to attend upon them when present; also to care for all who come upon visits of condolence or to a funeral. The above services are obligatory, and, if refused, the mirási is turned out of the village, and his place is supplied by another. In exchango for their services the mirásis receive, on ten or twelve different occasions between the betrothal and the marriage, presents of from eight annas to two rupees, among the perquisites are the shawl or other valuable cloth used as the pall at the funerals of the better classes. When the marriage procession leaves the house of the bride, the bridegroom distributes to all the mirásis, who collect from the neighbouring villages for the purpose, from one anna to one rupee each according to his means. Jats call this rátarchárí, and Gújars, dar. The poor give one or two pice to each mirási called warah. This custom prevails still; in former days the mirúsis could secure their perquisites by giving the recussant a bad name, and speaking disrespectfully of him.

Agricultural labourers.

The subject of the employment of field labour, other than that of the proprietors or tenants themselves, and the system of agricultural partnerships, are thus noticed in answers furnished by the District Officer and inserted in the Famine Report of 1879 (page 711 ff):—

"It is not customary for the agriculturists of this district to employ hired field labourers for continuous service; should it so happen that a proprietor is unable to cultivate himself, he makes over his land to a cultivator at half produce rates or a money payment; or should the proprietor be in easy circumstances, ho employs one or two servants known as kamis for field labour, giving them food and clothing and salary of Re. 1-8 a month; but at the threshing time, churas and mussallis are employed, who are paid at the rate of 6 topás (10) sérs) per máni (81 maunds) of grain stored; of this description of labourers there are 3,095 in the district; when they are freed from this description of business, they maintain themselves by domestic service, haudicrafts and ordinary labour, having no dealings with village bankers. The percentage they bear to the total population of the district is 0.48. The condition of such field labourers in this district is inferior to that of the poorer agriculturists who cultivate holdings of their own:"

The number of agricultural labourers shown in the census of 1891 was only 4,504 males in the whole district. It is quite clear that the figures are altogether unreliable, but it may also be said that owing to the general method of cultivation by small

proprietors, and to the small holdings, the necessity for agri- Chapter III, D. cultural labourers is small. But as has been mentioned above most of the village menials are employed as agricultural labourers, and it may be said that field labour is as a rule performed by owners or by tenant, or by men, who are engaged in some other occupation as well. The figures given below show the males, as recorded in the census of 1891, who probably work as labourers. labourers in addition to their recorded employment :-

Village Communities, Rights and Tenures.

Agricultural

Record	Number of males.	Proportion per mile of total male population.				
Agricultural labourers	s		•••		4,504	11
Barbers		•••			5,623	14
Washerman	•••	•••		•••	2,758	7
Water-carriers	•••	•••	•••		3,278	8
Coolies	•••	•••			` 3,599	. 9
Miscellancous service			•••		3,826	10
Swcepers		•••	•••		14,320	36
Oil pressers	•••	•••	•••		2,341	G
Cotton-cleaners	•••	***	•••		2,139	5
Cotton cloth weavers		•••	•••		21,907	55
Blacksmiths		•••	•••	1	3,389	8
Potters	•••	•••	•••		5,802	14
Carpenters	•••	•••	•••		5,913	15
Workers in leather	• • •	•••	•••		13,928	35
General labourers		•••	•••		2,476	6
ı				l		_

The wages of labour prevailing at different periods are shown in Table No. XXVII, though the figures refer to the labour market of towns, rather than to that of villages, and cannot in any way be said to represent agricultural labourers, who more often than not receive their food, and at least part of their clothing in addition to a small monthly wage.

Wages.

Table No. XXXII gives statistics of sales and mortgages of land; Tables Nos. XXXIII and XXXIIIA. show the operations of the proprietors. of the Registration Department; and Table No. XXXIX the extent of civil litigation. But the statistics of transfers of land are exceedingly imperfect; the prices quoted are very generally fictitious, and any figures which we possess afford but little real indication of the economical position of the landholders of the district. Colonel Waterfield thus discusses the subject at page 102 f of his report:—

Poverty or wealth

"It would seem that the debts had increased as the settlement operations advanced. But the people account for the great increase in registration by saying that the debts have not really increased, but that the advantages of registration are now perfectly clear to the money-lending classes, as the disadvantages are to the borrowers. The attendance of the borrowing classes at the Settlement Courts was an opportunity not to be lost by the money-lenders, who, accompanying their debtors to the tahsils, made them not only register the debts of the year, but the balances of their accounts and the unpaid debts of former years. Whether the indebtedness is greater than in other districts cannot be judged of without the facts, but a more uncomplaining lot of debtors cannot well be found. If the registered debts are Rs. 2,50,000, the unregistered debts must amount to

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Chapter III, D.

Village Communities, Rights and Tenures. half as much again; in all to more than half the Government demand for the year. But the Government demand being only one-sixth of the gross produce, one-fourth of the latter is only liable for debts and land revenue, and a large margin is left. Notwithstanding the apparently prosperous condition of the district, the people are no doubt much in debt, and the registration of bonds had largely increased in 1867.

Debts in th Gnjrát tahsil.

"That the debts of the Gujrát tahsíl are so much greater than those of Khárián is probably due entirely to the character of the people and the moneylenders. Gujrát 'sets up for being quite a cut or two above ' the other tahsíls, The chandris and leaders of fashion frequent the courts, visit the Enropean officors, come up to town daily if living near, periodically if at a distance, and quite look down upon the more unsophisticated, rougher and in some cases (no doubt) more honest, though always less showy, villago notables from Phália or Khárián. The lambardárs and proprietary bodies follow the lead, and do not consider themselves worthy of the name of zamindars if they have not their banker, and a running account with him. No doubt too the yearly increase to the already heavy population is telling, and the consequent minute subdivision of land leads to difficulties. The population has increased between the eensus of 1854 and 1868 by 19 per cent., whilst the cultivation has only increased 11 per cent. Constantly I have noticed a strange contrast in the dress and manner and tone of two lambardars or proprietors, whom I know to bo of the same stock, if not actually brothers; and often the explanation given by my informant, as I loft the village, has been that the one has no family and keeps his tenants at-will, whilst the other has had to portion out his land for the maintenance of six sons with separate houses and rising families. The money-londers of Gujrát too, are more au fait at the workings of the courts, and few accommodate any but those with whose families their connection may have existed for generations, save under the security of the duly stamped and registered bond.

State of the Khárián tahsíl.

he c "In Khárián the old stylo of thing exists; people are less exponsivo in their habits, and the population has some room for expansion. They have no wells to sink or repair, and their cattle bring them in some profits upon which the graindealer does not get such a ready hold.

Of the Phália tahsil.

"In the Phália tahsíl, again, where wells are numerous, and the soil is generally (save in the bar and bet Jehlum assessment circles) less productive than Gujrát, and were difficult to work than the lighter soils of the Khárián tahsíl, the expense of agriculture, particularly in ballocks, must be greater, and the result is that the debts are heavier. There is also another reason in the fact that the cultivation has much increased, and this means new wells and fresh cattle, both unpaid for.

State of the case under Sikh rule.

"Still the people say that under Sikh rnle they only existed through the money-lending class; each cultivator, whether propriotor or tenant, always found himself in debt to his Khatri for at least a six months' supply of honsohold necessaries, such as cloth for clothos, oil, salt, and even grain for seed or food and each for occasional emergencies. For interest on their debt, the Khatri received all the produce of the land at a price current of his own, which gave him at least two annas in the rupee profit; accounts were never closed by the agriculturist, who always found himself on the wrong side; each new money lean started with an immediate addition of 64 per cent. interest, and was only satisfied with a further 124 per cent. interest every six months at harvest time. And so it was at the commencement of our rule, but now they say the connection between the two classes is daily becoming weaker, and that a large proportion of the agriculturists have shaken themselves free."

Mortgaged land.

As has been stated above, the figures for annual transfers by mortgage are unreliable; not only is the price seldom correctly entered, but the number of mortgages shown is probably in excess of the reality, as often land is only redeemed from mortgage with the money which has been obtained by mortgaging it again to some other person. Against this there is a fact that a very large number of mortgages are never brought on to the records. To ascertain the total amount of land held in

mortgages, the figures obtained in each village at the time of remeasurement are the most accurate. These are given in the following statement:—

Mortgages existing at remeasurement in settlement 1891-93.

Village Communities, Rights and Tenures.

							===		Mortgaged lan
		`	TO AGE TURA OF VILL	LISTS THE	TO AGE TURAL OF OF VILLA	Lists Ther	To NOT		
Tahsil.	Soil.		Area in acres.	Mortgage money.	Arca in acres.	Mortgage money.	Area in acres.	Mortgage money.	
				Rs.	{	Rs.		Rs.	
Gujrút {	Cháhi Sailáb Báráni	::	2,367 805 6,007		934 395 4,305		12,827 2,965 17,152	 	
	Total		9,179	2,71,409	5,634	1,71,820	32,944	12,15,112	
Phália	Cháhi Sailáb Báráni		2,639 241 1,923	 	526 59 594	•••	11,284 1,042 8,199	•••	
	Total		4,803	94,313	1,179	20,687	20,525	4,64,974	
Kháriáu {	Cháhi Sailáb Báráni		179 134 5,153	l	68 40 3,425		700 575 17,120		
,	Total		5,466	2,39,917	3,553	1,58,14	18,395	8,32,013	• }
Total District {	Cháhi Sailáb Báráni		5,185 1,180 13,083		1,528 494 8,324		24,811 4,852 42,471		
•	Total	•••	19,448	6,05,639	10,346	3,50,65	71,864	25,12,099)

The figures given in the above statement show only cultivation, in addition 1,246 acres of uncultivated land are mortgaged to agriculturalists of the village, 246 acres to agriculturalists of other villages, and 3,733 acres to non-agriculturalists. This uncultivated area is in the Phália and Khárián tahsíls alone. The conclusions to be drawn are that of a total cultivated area of 763,977 acres in the district 101,658 acres, or 13 per cent., are mortgaged for a sum of Rs. 34,68,390, being at an average of

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Village
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Tenures.

Mortgaged land.

Rs. 34 per acre; 2.5 per cent. of the cultivated area is mortgaged to agriculturalists of the village, 1.4 per cent. to agriculturalists of other villages, and 9.8 per cent. to non-agriculturalists. The percentage of the different classes of soils mortgaged are shown below:—

Soil.				To agricultur- alists of the village.	To agricultur- alists of other villages.	To non-agriculturalists.		
Cháhi	•••	•••	•••	2.4	·7	11,8		
Sailáb	***	•••	•••	2.3	.9	8.8		
Báráni	•••	•••	•••	2.6	1.6	8:4		

A further criterion of these figures is obtained from a comparison of the proportion of the different classes of soils mortgaged.

The statement below shows the percentage of each different class of land mortgaged to the different classes of mortgagees:—

,	Soil.		To agricultur- alists of the village.	To agricultur- alists of other villages:	To non-agricul- turalists.	
Cháhi	•••	•••		26	15	· 35
Sailáb	•••	•••		6	4 `	6
Báráni	•••		•••	68	. 81	59

From the statement it will be seen that the better class of land is, as a rule, mortgaged, as only 59 per cent. of the land mortgaged to non-agriculturalists is báráni, as compared with 68 and 81 per cent. to agriculturalists. As regards the mortgage money, it is found that the average price per acre to non-agriculturalists is Rs. 35, and to agriculturalists Rs. 31 and 34.

Improvement under British rule.

It may be said that the prosperity and welfare of the people has increased during the British rule, as is manifested by the improvement in the dress and dwellings of the people; in the tendency to use railways wherever opened; in their increased expenditure in litigation, excise and stamps. Loans are obtained with greater ease than formerly owing to the enhanced value of landed property, and to the greater facility of collecting debts, though the interest on loans has not fallen as might have been expected.

CHAPTER IV.

PRODUCTION AND DISTRIBUTION.

SECTION A.—AGRICULTURE, ARBORICULTURE AND LIVE-STOCK.

Table No. XIV gives general figures for cultivation and irrigation; the rainfall is shown in Tables Nos. III and III A. and B., and the area under forests in Table No. XVIII. Statistics of live-stock will be found in Table No. XXIII. Further statistics are given under their various headings in the subsequent paragraphs of this Chapter. Land tenures, tenants and rent have already been noticed in Chapter III, Section D. The following figures show the distribution of the area in 1891-92:—

Chapter IV, A.

Agriculture, Arboriculture and
Live-stock.

General statistics.

					Tansils.	ı	
Specificat	Specification of Land.		Gujrát.	Khárián.	Phália.	Total.	
Total area in ac Forests Uncult urable Culturable	res		::	350,607 2,824 49,454 22,436	410,532 25,069 78,151 47,207	459.371 27,612 38,149 132,875	1,220,510 55,505 165,754 202,518
Irrigated Flooded Dry	•••	 Total	•••	75,384 28,848 171,661 275,893	10,670 8,094 241,341 260,105	128,315 17,933 114,487 260,735	214,369 54,875 527,489 796,733

Seasons.

The total annual fall of rain and the manner in which it is distributed throughout the year is shown in Tables Nos. III, IIIA. and III B. An agricultural view of the year is as follows, and from it may be gathered the farmer's idea of seasonable weather:—

MONTHS.

Baisákh (April) Spring crops are cut in this month; healthy, cool nights, warm days.

Jeth (May) Heat of value for drying grain. Rain injurious to crops. Hot and healthy. If cold, then unhealthy.

Hárh (June) Up to 15th as above. Rain after 15th good, called phal jhalla. If no rain, prospects bad for the year's crops. Lund is prepared for autumn crops.

Chapter IV, A.

Months.

boriculture and Live-stock.

Agriculture, Ar. Sáwan (July) Very hot. Rain every second or third day.

- Bhádron (August) If no rain, then the autumn crops will fail, and the preparation of the land for the spring sowings will be stopped. No grazing: scarcity may be anticipated; this month unhealthy.
- Asauj (Sept.) Healthy month. Rains in full force; weather cooler. Land being prepared for spring crops.
- Kátak (October) Spring crops being sown, autumn crops ripen, and are being cut. Rain very valuable. Proverb "barseh Diváli jaiseh chouar waiseh háli," i. e., if it rains during the Diváli the idler and the ploughman are equally well off.
- Maggar (November) The autumn crops are all got in; cold weather fairly begins.
- Poh (December) & All the grain and fodder stored by the willagers are consumed this month; no grazing; very cold.
- Phágan (February) Cold and windy; the fall of the leaf. Proverb "Phágan kaihta, Chetra, kiya karye bhái; main áya hún, jhún; tú banne láin;" i. e., says Phágan to Chetar, what shall we do brother, I have swept all clear, now you restore or reproduce; or again "Phágan máh phugendah búdhi théridi sár lénda," i. e., the Phágan winds reach old and weak.
- Chét (March) Spring welcome to man and beast; sowing of cotton, sugarcane, and melons begun for the autumn crops; cutting of spring crops commences; rain very useful.

The occupations of the agriculturists are month by month, much as follows, and an insight is hereby obtained into village life and its almost incessant labour:—

February (Mágh) The land for both the autumn and next year's spring crops is broken up in this month. The first of the month of Mágh the women of the village don their newest clothes, the men go round on visits of congratulation to all who may have had a son born to them during the last year, and the ploughs are all started. This day is called the lohi. The ploughs work incessantly throughout the

month.

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MONTHS.

March (Phágan) The land ploughed in the preceding month is again ploughed over once or twice in this; and cotton, tobacco, melons, cucumbers, water melons, onions, and other vegetables are sown and sugarcane is set.

Chapter IV, A.

Agriculture, Arboriculture and
Live-stock.

Seasons.

April (Chét) Crops sown in the previous month are weeded once or twice in this.

Vegetables and tobacco are irrigated; sarshaf, masúr, and gram crops ripen, and are cut.

- May (Baisákh) The month is spent in cutting the corn, and the remainder of the spring harvest.
- June (Jeth) Is entirely occupied in threshing and winnowing, which operations are hurried on as quickly as possible for fear of storms.
- July (Hárh) The grain crops have been got in by the middle of the month, when the tobacco crops are cut and buried in the ground for fifteen days.

 The cotton and cane are weeded once.
- August (Sánwan) From the 1st to the 15th, rice, Indian corn, bájra, jowár, and other autumn crops are sown, after the 15th any land destined for spring crops is ploughed once or twice, and then the rice and millet crops are weeded, talai, karna, and the autumn crops, godi karn; the difference being that in rice crops all the weeding must be done by the hand, under water.
- Sept. (Bhádron) Up to the middle of the month the weeding of the kharíf crops continues in the afternoons, the weeds forming forage for the cattle. The mornings are spent in ploughing. In the latter half of the month the ground is ploughed, and the following crops are sown: sarshaf, gram, tárámíra, carrots, turnips.
- October (Asauj) The autumn crops which are ripening have now to be watched, and the land which has been left for barley, masúr and linseed is ploughed over two or three times, after which those crops are sown. Land is also prepared for the next year's spring crops for corn, cotton and cane. Cotton-picking begins; the women perform this, being accompanied by the female village servants connected with them, who receive one-fourth of their pickings as wages.

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MONTHS.

November (Kátak) Is occupied entirely in sowing corn and cutt-Chapter IV, A. ing the autumn crops.

Seasons.

Agriculture, Ar-boriculture and December (Maggar) The threshing and winnowing of the autumn crops, Indian corn, bájra, másh, jowár, go on throughout the month, and towards the end the cane-mills or presses are set up and put in order.

> January (Poh) The cane-mills work this month. Barley and wheat are irrigated. In the rain tracts where neither cane is grown nor wells exist, the zamíndárs occupy themselves in manuring the fields.

Below are given the most common proverbial expressions Popular proverbs. relating to husbandry in use among the people.

Hundi sab sachagián. Waindi sab boián.

Wives of the well-to-do, all are wise; land which is ploughed will produce crop.

Explanation.—Persons become rich owing to the frugality of their wives, so land produces a crop if it be properly tilled.

> 2. Titar khambi badli, ran malai khá, Wuh wase, wuh njre, doon khatá na ja.

When clouds resemble partridge's feathers, when women eat cream: such clouds will bring rain, such women will give trouble; of the truth of these sayings there is no doubt.

3. Wase Chetar, na mewe ghar, na mewe khetar.

If it rains in Chetar, neither houses nor fields will hold the crop.

Explanation.—Rain in this month gives a bumper crop.

Fagan jarián lagan, kangán wagan. Karsán Khatrian nún thagan.

If rain begins in Fágan: floods begin to flow, cultivators will tire the money-lenders.

Explanation.—If it rains in Fágan, crops are expected to be so good that money-lenders willingly advance money to all who ask.

5. Rah rahin, gah gahán.

When the road is deserted, the threshing floor is the busy spot.

Explanation.—The hottest and driest weather is the best for threshing.

6. Sau sính to ek sohágah.

A hundred ploughings then one rolling.

7. Sab'kalán het halán.

All machines are inferior to ploughs.

8. Niwán zamínon, únche sákon, jad kad nafa.

Fortune smiles on low-lying land and on high descent.

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Explanation .- Owners of low-lying land and descendants Chapter IV, A. of the high-born are usually prosperous.

9. Maire di karír, hath wich tind, mohde lír.

The owner of dry (maira) land carries a bowl in his hand and rags on his back (i.e., is a beggar).

> Sáwan barsi, pal jhalle, Bhádon de din chàr.

> > Asu dhénde mengla, bhuli phire gowár, Dawe bane rab de, múnh murakh de már.

In Sáwan continued rain is necessary, in Bhádon four days are sufficient (i.e. every 7 days); persons who are foolish look for rain in Asu, they know not what is best, they causelessly petition Providence, and should be beaten on the face.

> 11. Sáwan minh ne wasia Bhádon pai kahár, Jisgbar bàl na khedia Ainwen gai sahár.

If it does not rain in Sáwan, in Bhádon distress increases: thus the days drag on, as in a house in which there is no child.

12. Hár táe, Sáwan láe.

A hot Hár makes a good Sáwan.

13. Jat te minh bare sainsár, Jaton sanda kita, bádshah kheden shíkár, Jaton mion báhra, kul parja tuteahár.

Rain and Jat are each a power, when the Jat works, the ruler hunts; without Jats and rain, every one is in want.

14. Daghe ápne te háli taúr, Zamín khudá karandái tiwen taur.

With one's own oxen and a hired ploughman, the land gets somehow ploughed.

Explanation.—The hired man's desire is to complete his task as soon as possible, without pity for his cattle or interest in his labor.

> 15. Dágar gad te mulhar pa, Aishen kardá gbar nún ja.

Sow the wheat and give manure; having done this go home.

Explanation.—Nothing further is necessary to ensure a crop.

16. Mundon wad te niki gáh, Godi dah ke minda ja.

Reap the corn close to the ground, spread it thin on the threshing-floor, rest a while, then measure the corn.

Explanation.—If you follow these directions you will get the best results.

> 17. Hal khúh wage nahín. Te gade nún araráwe.

If the ox will not work in the well or plough, he wishes for the cart.

Agriculture, Arboriculture, and Live-stock.

Popular proverbs.

Chapter IV, A.

Agriculture. Arboriculture and Live-stock.

Popular proverbs.

Explanation.—If the ox is not content with light work, such as the well or plough, he must be wanting something harder such as the cart.

 Gail gail bail máre, jáu chuge torunga, Kod kod chua mare, mal baithe sapanga.

Overworked the ox dies, the horse eats the barley; digging and digging rats die, snakes occupy the holes.

Explanation.—Those who labor not, reap the advantage of other's labors.

Dáta kál parkhie, deona Fagan mah ;
 Tadhi nár parkhie ján dhan pale nae.

The rest for a liberal man is a famine; the test for a cow is the month of Fágan; the test for a woman is when there is no money in the house.

20. More chuge te chekor áwe, Wachha moia dudh de háwe.

The cow which first goes out to graze and which last returns, her calf will die from want of milk.

21. Je tún páen nera niánah,
Haton wich nahín dudh dohna;
jai tún karenbari parchol,
bánda bane kur de kol.

If you simply tie a cow's leg with a rope, it will give no milk; if you persevere it will break the pail.

Explanation.—When a cow is milked, it should have food in front of it.

22. Kar mazdúri khá chúri.

Do work and eat dainties.

23. Dhol rat te kha bhat.

Expend blood (work hardly) and eat rice.

24. Kam kharch bála nashíu.

One who spends little takes a high seat.

25. Mál gáin te raiát Aráin.

The best property is a cow; the best tenant is an Aráín.

26. Je dena howe shah da te til warihalo gad.

If you are in debt to the money-lender sow til.

Explanation.—Debts are paid in kind, and the produce of til is greatest.

27. Sath malhar, satárah páni Chína jahre kanál máni.

With seven manurings and seventeen waterings, china will return a máni on a kanál.

28. Sáten síwin gájra, sau síwin kamád.

Seven ploughings for carrots, one hundred for cane.

 Do tapusi kangui, karo karo kapás, Lef di bukal már ke maki wichhon ja. Sow kangni at a distance of two frog's leaps; cotton at a distance of two paces; makki at such a distance that a man with blanket on his shoulders will not touch the plants when they grow up.

30. Bájra jetha, putar pleta.

Bájra sown in Jeth and a first-born son are the best.

No ploughing is ever done in January or Jeth, which are considered unlucky months, although it continues pretty nearly without intermission during the other ten. Wheat is never cut, if it can be avoided, before the Baisákh festival, and barley only to a sufficient extent to furnish food for the poorer cultivators.

The area is divided into four zones of fertility: I, the submontane; II, the dorsal or high central plateau; III, the lowlands; IV, the alluvial; the V being a combination of III and IV, low-lands sometimes flooded. But the natural conditions of the larger portion of the two first are changed by what may be called the principal features of the district, the Pabbi hills and the Bhimber torrent, which latter operates most powerfully upon III and V. The 1st or submontane tracts, east of the Bhimbar, form part of the natural slope from the base of the lowest range of the Himalayas; flat or undulating plateaus of dry sandy soil, intersected by four or five nalás or hill torrents, which, rising in the southern water-shed of this range, are fed by the rainfall of but a small area, and, running through this tract in deep channels with a southerly direction parallel to the Bhimbar, merely drain it, and confer no benefit until, passing through the I and II zones, they reach the III or low-lands, which they occasionally fertilize, but often affect injuriously. The Bhimbar alone rises beyond the low near range of hills, through which it bursts, draining a large area in Jammu territory and several small valleys. ing down periodically during the rainy seasons, it moistens the low-lands on its banks and passes on, like the small torrents, to fertilize a portion of the III zone. But across the head of the submontane tract, west of the Bhimbar, nature has thrown up the Pabbi range of low volcanic hills. They arrest all drainage from the Himalayas, all percolation from the Jhelam, and render these tracts and the II zone, or high central plateau adjoining them, entirely dependent upon the rainfall within the district. The II or dorsal and central tract is of a stronger and better soil; that portion lying nearest the submontane, being like the latter, devoid of water and so incapable of irrigation, but receiving some moisture by the overflow of rainfall from them. flow, however, always taking a southerly direction, has crossed the district into the low-lands just at the head of the high table land of the bár, which, with its strong rich soil, is thus made entirely dependent upon its wells (from 60 to 80 feet deep) supplemented by a rainfall which has gradually diminished as the distance from the hills has increased. The III zone consists of low-lands, a belt of almost uniform breadth running the length of the district between the generally-defined banks of the

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Popular proverbs.

Zones of fertility.

Submontane zone.

Central zone.

Lowland zone.

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Alluvial zone.

Soils.

central tract, from which it receives any overflow of superfluous rain, and the alluvial land along the banks of the Chenab. The soil of this tract, generally a good loam, appears gradually to deteriorate as it runs south-west, where it loses any advantage from the effect of the hill torrents, which flood and fertilize the upper portion in the Gujrát tahsíl. All this tract is highly cultivated and carefully irrigated by wells. Between these lowlands and the Chenáb river, and also along the edge of the Jhelam, run the alluvial tracts forming the IV zone; moistened by percolation from these rivers, with wells of a depth never greater than 20 feet, they enjoy great facilities for agriculture in Low flooded zone. the driest seasons; some compensation for the varying fortunes which are borne down these unmanageable silt-bearing streams

> sometimes to make, sometimes to mar. The V zone, a combination of III and IV, consists of low-lands through or over which

the Bhimbar torrent periodically flows.

The tables on pages 112 and 114 show the soil and irrigation areas as ascertained at settlement measurements, 1866-67. The soils were classed as (1) well-irrigated or cháhí; (2) flooded or sailáb; (3) dependent upon rain or báráni—(a) manured or gora, (b) clayey or rohi; (c) loam or dosháhi; (d) sandy or maira. At settlement 1891-92 the only classification of soils made was according to the presence or absence of irrigation. figures by assessment circles for 1891-92 are shown on page114. It is doubtful whether the classification of chahi and sailáb, of even of cultivation, at each period was alike. In 1891-92 all land irrigated regularly from a well was classed as cháhi, and all land which regularly received flood water was classed as The guides to the limit of the cháhi area were the small channels by which water is distributed, all land served by such channels was entered as cháhi, and also any land which from other indications appeared to be thus advantaged. which had not borne a crop within four successive harvests was entered as banjar, otherwise it was entered as cultivated :-

Statement showing the acreage of soils (Settlement of 1867).

•			CLASSIFIED BY SOILS.						
Parganah.	Name of Circle,	Manured (Gora).	Clay (Rohi).	Loam (Do- sháhi).	Sandy (Maira).	Total.			
GUJRAT,	Chhamb Niánda Bet Jatátar Bhimbar Dande Darya Bulandi Paláhi Total	1,491 2,232 6,097 1,575 461 3,044 3,192	4,771 1,747 2,509 5,615 4,641 669 1,630 1,798 23,380	6,577 4,775 7,163 19,699 9,019 3,881 13,285 11,464 75,863	2,308 4,413 6,989 20,735 6,550 5,810 41,223 34,405	14,881 12,426 18,893 52,146 21,785 10,821 59,182 50,859 240,993			

Statement showing the acreage of soils (Settlement of 1867)—concld.

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			CLASSIFIED BY SOILS.						
Parganah.	Name of Circle.		Manured (Gora).	Clay (Rohi).	Loam (Do- sháhi).	Sandy (Maira).	Total.		
KHARIAN.	Bet Jhelam Hithár Pabbi Maira Bhimbar Pár Pabbi Bulandi Urár Pabbi		1,165 2,958 1,612 1,937 2,797 3,366 910	340 11,748 3,185 2,742 1 132 775	2,304 19,962 14,403 4,564 1,171 2,188 1,947	9,393 18,016 18,629 16,111 16,119 26,093 6,754	13,202 52,684 37,829 25,354 20,088 31,779 10,386		
	Total	•••	14,745	18,923	46,539	111,115	191,322		
Риавіл.	Bet Ist, Jukálián Bet Jhelam Bhimbar Bet 2nd, Qádirabad Pakheri Hithár Nakka Bár Akiwála Total		2,203 2,870 800 1,131 5,266 2,594 2.310 3,396 4,129 24,699	876 945 974 944 1,456 671 1,366 3,168 854 111,254	5,168 7,440 2,938 3,378 5,682 3,946 7,423 8,828 8,773 53,576	2,386 4,253 881 4,419 11,685 9,120 9,293 11,721 10,814 64,572	10,633 15,508 5,593 9,872 24,089 16,331 20,392 27,113 24,570		
	Grand Total		58,761	53,557	175,978	298,120	586,416		

Statement showing the acreage of soils (Settlement of 1867).

			CLASSIFII	ED ACCORDIN	G TO WATE	R-SUPPLY.
Parganah.	Name of Circle,		Irrigated (Cháhi).	Flooded (Sailábi).	Dry (Bártini).	Total.
-						
٢	Chhamb	•••	8,105	2,390	4,386	14,881
ļ	Niánda	•••	5,386	837	6,203	12,426
<u> </u>	Bet	•••	8,065	8,325	2,503	18,893
Gojrat.	Jatátar	•••	19,332	6,450	26,364	52,146
Βi	Bbimbar	•••	10,890	5,026	5,869	21,785
2	Dande Darya	•••	267	4,175	6,379	10,821
į	Bulandi	•••	3,035	3,165	52,982	59,182
Ų	Paláhi	•••	1,835	2,523	46,501	50,859
	Total	<i>J.</i>	. 56,915	32,891	151,187	240,993
ſ	Bet Jhelam	•••	212	3,863	9,127	13,202
ان	Hethár Pabbi		715		51,969	52,684
Kuarian.	Maira	•••	3,143	62	34,624	37,829
≅ {	Bhimbar		1,761	2,301	21,292	25,354
ΞI	Pár Pabbi	•••	106	876	19,106	20,088
×	Búlandi'	•••	427	103	31,249	31,779
Ĺ	Urár Pabbi	•••	34	1	10,351	10,386
	Total	•••	6,398	7,206	177,718	191,322

Chapter IV, A. Statement showing the acreage of soils (Settlement of 1867)—concld.

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		CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO WATER-SUPPLY.					
Parganah.	Name of Circle.	Irrigated (Chahi).	Flooded (Sailábi).	Dry (Báráni).	Total.		
Phylia.	Bet 1st, Jukálián Bet Jhelam Bhimbar Bet 2nd, Qadirabad Pakheri Hithár Nakka Bár Akíwálah	•••	7,817 7,063 5,190 4,910 20,103 11,676 11,477 13,518 20,823	1,673 5,201 48 4,200 98 108 12 95 146	1,143 8,244 355 762 3,888 4,547 8,903 13,500 3,601	10,633 15,508 5,593 9,872 24,089 16,331 20,392 27,113 24,570	
	Total	•••	102,577	11,581	39,943	154,101	
	GRAND TOTAL	***	165,890	51,678	368,848	586,416	

Statemen	t showing	acreage of	soils	(Settlement	1891-92)).
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1	Circle.		CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO WATER-SUPPLY.					
Tahsil.			Chậhi	Sailáb.	Báráni.	Total.		
	Hithár		27,314	10,808	10,177	48,299		
GUJRAT	Jatátar	•••	40,039	8,011	40,017	88,067		
	Bulandi	•••	8,031	10,029	121,467	139,527		
	Total	•••	75,384	28,848	171,661	275,893		
	Bet Jhelam		282	6,904	12,976	20,162		
KHARIAN	Pabbi	•••	307	202	47,159	47,668		
(Maira	•••	10,081	988	181,206	192,275		
•	Total	***	10,670	8,094	241,341	260,105		
	Bet Jhelam	•••	8,871	√ 6,854	5,411	21,136		
Рильна	Bár	•••	32,495	105	74,506	100,106		
THADIA	Hithar	***	71,907	88	31,578	103,573		
į	Bet Chenáb	•••	15,042	10,886	2,992	28,920		
	Total	•••	128,315	17,933	114,487	260,735		
	GRAND TOTAL	141	214,369	54,875	527,489	796,733		

As compared with settlement figures of 1867-68 the figures given below show what changes had occurred in 1891-92. The figures represent percentage of total cultivated area.—

Tahsil.	ŗ	Year.	Cháhi.	Sailáb.	Báráni.
		1867-68	23	14	63
Gujrát	•••	1891-92	28	$\overline{12}$	60
Khárián		j 1867-68	3	4	93
ZZ-GGTIGH	•••	1891-92	4	3	93
Phália		1867-68	67	7	26
		{ 1891-92	49	8	43

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The following figures show the number of wells existing Irrigation in in the district with certain statistics regarding them for ¹⁸⁶⁷⁻⁶⁸.

1867-68:—

wells.	Dept WA' IN F	TER	Cost in	Cost in rupres.		CKS PER R BUCKET.	ដ	Acres irri- GATED PER WHEEL OR BUCKET.	
Number of	From	То	Masonry.	Without masonry.	Number of pairs. Cost in rupees.		Cost of gear.	Spring	Autumn.
5,363		20	300	5	4	240	35	18	12
2,072	20	40	350		5	350	40	20	15
531	30	40	400		5	450	50	24	16

Of these wells 108 were unbricked. The Persian wheel is always used. The wells under 20 feet deep are found only close to the rivers, and the depth increases with the distance from the stream.

The figures for 1891-92, are given below:—

Irrigation in 1891.92.

Number of wells, Total well Average well area in acres. 8,697 214,369 24

It is doubtful how far a comparison between these two sets of figures is correct, since in 1891-92 all wells capable of being worked are entered, but it is probable that in 1867-68 only those wells were entered, which were found to be actually working. The percentage of increase both in wells and in *cháhi* area for 1891-92 on 1867-68 is shown for tahsíls below:—

PERCENTAGE OF INCREASE.

					No. of wells.	Cháhi area.
Gujrát	•••	***		•••	1 5	37
Phália	•••	•••	•••	•••	24	27
Khárián		•••	•••	•••	7 5	59

A calculation of the profits of an average well is made by Profits of an average Colonel Waterfield as follows. The difference between the pro-age well. duce of the 20 acres unirrigated, Rs. 112-4-0, and of the same land

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Profits of an average well.

under well irrigation, Rs. 198-4-0, is shown to be Rs. 86 per The cost of working it is shown to be Rs. 55, leaving. Rs. 31 to the owner, of which Government takes its share. the cost and expense of wells differ of course very greatly. the bar a well costs Rs. 500 or Rs. 600, whilst the cattle required must be strong buffaloes, and the rope itself, 140 cubits or 210 feet long, is generally made of the pathah or palm leaf brought from Kála Bágh and Sohan Suketar, in the Shahpur district, and from the Kular Kahar hill, in the Jhelam district: the rope does not last more than a month; 12 are used in the year, which, at Rs. 2-8-0 per rope, amounts to Rs. 30.

Agricultural imances.

Table No. XXII shows the number of cattle, carts and plements and appli-ploughs in each tabsil of the district as returned in 1891-92. The implements and other farm stock required by a peasant cultivator are detailed in the statement below, which also gives the price of each item at the present day in comparison with those of Sikh times. It will be seen that, including a sugarmill and a cart, the farm stock of a cultivator is estimated to cost him in round numbers Rs. 100. To this should be added the cost of bullocks, the number of which will of course vary with the nature of the holding and its capacity for irrigation.

Detail of agricultural implements, with statement of cost price.

			C	Cost	PRIC	Е.	
Vernacúlar name	English.	In Sikh- times.			Present.		
Hal Panjáli Nati Náli Sohága Maira Belna Gurhál Jhandra Pahori Kahi Khurpa Khurpa Náli Dátri Manna Sánguh Trengli Phallah Ohoba Chhaj Gadda	Plough Yoke Whip Seed drill Clod-crusher Clod (small) Sugar-mill Oil-press Rake for raising up ridges of earth Hand-scraper; worked by two men Spade Hand-hoe Axe Reaping-hook Raised stage for watching crops Pitch-fork Ditto The sledge, or harrow dragged by bullocks over the corn when threshing. Crowbar Winnowing sieve Cart	Rs. 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 9	A. 13 10 1 2 7 13 15 4 2 1 1 4 2 8 1 8 1 1 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	P. 6 0 0 6 6 6 9 0 0 3 6 0 6 0 6 0 0 0 0	Rs. 2 0 0 0 0 2 1 56 6 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 24	A. 5 12 13 22 7 22 10 28 28 13 1	P. 6 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
	Total	72	10	9	97	` 8 .	6

The manured area, as it stood at the survey of the settlement of 1867-68, has been given in a former paragraph and no later details of this area area vailable. On these figures Captain Waterfield remarked that it had increased very little since the first regular settlement, but he also added that :- "The return "cannot be altogether depended upon, and may be said to tion of crops. "represent only that land which from its proximity to the "villages is invariably manured, and not that which receives an "occasional dressing. Many Gujar villages still seem to use "this valuable commodity only to enlarge the mound on which "their houses are clustered; they maintain that it does not suit Much manure is also consumed "as fuel."

Live-stock. Manure and rota-

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The following description of the use of manure and the . system of rotation of crops as practised in the district was furnished for the Famine Report of 1879 (page 246 ff):-

"Percentage of cultivated area which is manured:-

	Con- stantly mauur- ed.	Occa- sionally manur- ed.	Not manur- ed.	Total.	Percentage of previous column, which bears two or more crops.
Irrigated land Unirrigated "	 20 15	14 5	66 80	100 100	2

[&]quot;The quantity commonly used is from 100 to 160 maunds of manure to one acre previous to ploughing for sowing.

Table No. XX shows the areas under the principal agricultural staples, as well as the percentage which each crop bears to the total harvested area for periods of five years. barley, gram are the main crops of the rabi harvest, and bájra jowár, maize, cotton, moth, and rice the most important crops, with regard to area of the kharif harvest, though others such as tobacco, sugarcane and vegetables are important from their value. The proportion of crops grown in rabi is rather greater than that of those grown in kharff, but with such a large area entirely dependent on the rainfall, the proportion depends to a large extent on the seasons. The percentage of crops harvested in rabi was for the three years ending 1891-92 55, 60 and 67, the high percentage in the last year being due to failure of summer rains over a large portion of the district.

Principal staples.

[&]quot;The rotation of crops is as follows:-

[&]quot;After wheat and barley cut in a green state for fodder is removed, the land is sown with crops other than food grains, such as sugarcane, tobacco, melon, &c.; but after the above crops, removed in maturity, jowar, bájra, makki, and moth are sown. The extent to which unmanured lands are helped by rests or repeated ploughing is that the produce is thus increased by one-half. Irrigated lands are once watered previous to sowing, then manured and ploughed three or four times, and when the seed germinates, watered and weeded, and the nnirrigated land is only ploughed and the seed sown broadcast. It is occasionally left fallow, such as every fourth or fifth year."

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Wheat.

Wheat is by far the most important crop in every respect. the area under it being over 40 per cent. of the total harvested Four kinds of wheat are grown, they are known as dágar, surk, ghoni, and angothi. Dágar is known by its long black beard, its large ear, and by the length of its straw. is grown chiefly on land which is flooded or irrigated, but not to any great extent, as its grain is not so valuable as that of the other kinds. The grain, however, is longer and bigger, and the amount of straw produced to the acre is greater than of the other kinds. The description of wheat more generally cultivated throughout the district is surk. Though smaller than the dagar, the grain weighs heavy, and is generally most liked. This description is largely exported, that grown on the báráni lands in Bulandi circle of Tahsíl Gujrát fetching the best price. The ear of the ghoni has no beard, otherwise the plant cannot be distinguished from the surk; its grain is however rather smaller. This kind is grown chiefly in Jatátar circle, and to a very small extent throughout the district. The wheat known as angothi is but little grown, it resembles the ghoni in appearance but the grain is almost round and very similar in appearance to jowár.

Barley.

Two kinds of barley are grown, they are locally known as mamuli and paighambri. The former is most preferred, as its outturn is greater and its size is larger. The best barley is grown on sandy sailáb lands, but the grain is also grown to some extent as a second crop, especially after rice. Barley is also grown on land which being reserved for wheat, was, owing to want of rain, or insufficient preparation of the soil at sowing time, considered unfit for wheat, for this reason the area under this crop is liable to considerable fluctuations.

Gram.

Gram is cultivated in all parts of the district, though not on the best lands. It is generally to be found on the light sandy soils of the upper portion of the district, or in the heavy clay lands at the foot of the Pabbi. The outturn of an acre of this crop varies enormously; floods and frosts damage it, and fields of it are liable to get blighted and to wither up without apparent cause, but if the plant gets well rooted, it is able to stand considerable drought.

Bájra.

Bájra is grown throughout the district, but least on lands liable to flood, or having a clay soil. The finest bájra is generally to be seen on the terraced fields at the foot of the Pabbi, but in a year of good rains, the bájra of the bár cannot be surpassed, either in size or luxuriance. It is also grown in small patches near villages in Gujrát tahsíl on land highly manured and irrigated, there the plants attain great size, but the grain is not so good as that grown on rain lands.

Jowár.

Jowár prefers a rather stiffer soil to bájra; it is grown throughout the district, but except in the central portion of the Doáb, is more generally grown for fodder. When grown for

grain, the seed is selected and sown thin; when grown for fodder, or as *chari*, it is sown thick and cut before the grain matures. In parts of Gujrát tahsíl the young *jowár* plant is often eaten by the people in the same way as sugarcane.

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Live-stock.

Maize.

Maize is cultivated on the better description of soil, it requires manured land, and a heavy rainfall, but flooding is liable to kill the plants. The advantage of this crop is, that it occupies the ground for a very short time, and usually gives a good return; it is cut early and this enables the land to be prepared for a rabi crop. There are two kinds of maize, one of a reddish colour which is grown in the river villages of Khárián, the other of a white colour grown in the rest of the district.

Cotton.

The area of cotton cultivation depends to a great extent on the rain which falls in April and May. If during these months, there is one good fall, cotton is sown to a large extent on the bár and maira lands of Phália and Khárián. crop is precarious, as the plants have to survive through the hot weather until the rains come. If they successfully live through this period, the outturn on these báráni lands is genervery good. It is doubtful whether the agricultural returns show the full extent of cotton sowings, as if the first sowings fail, the land can always be utilized for bájrá or jowár in the same harvest. In the southern part of Phália and in Gujrát tahsíl, cotton is generally grown on well lands where there is less uncertainty. The best cotton is probably grown on the well lands of Bet Jhelam circle of Phália. There are two descriptions, which are not distinguished by separate names: that most commonly grown has a yellow flower, the other has a purple flower and its pods are rather larger. It seems probable that there is no real difference between the two, and that the purple flower variety is only the result of better cultivation. Most of the cotton grown is used locally for manufacture of cloth, and the seeds are given, mixed with other food, to cattle.

There are two kinds of moth, white and black. The plant thrives best on a sandy soil and is usually grown mixed with bájra. It is used as fodder, both when it is cut green, and also after the corn has been threshed.

Moth.

Rice is grown on the stiff clay lands of Gujrát and Phália; it is only grown extensively in places where its cultivation is assisted by flood water. But even in places where flood water does not reach a small plot is usually found attached to almost every well if the soil be suitable.

Rice.

The principal markets are Maghowál and Jhioránwáli. Three kinds 'are grown, red munji, white munji, and dhán. The red munji is the best, it is considered most delicate and is chiefly grown in the western part of Tahsíl Gujrát; white munji is most generally grown, but it is considered rather inferior to the red. Dhán is grown on the sailáb lands of the

to cut.

Jhelam, but is considered inferior as it has a bad red color.

The rice crop is throughout the district very uncertain, large

failures constantly occur owing to a long break in the rains,

or to floods being too long deferred, and it is liable to much

damage from windy weather when the grain is ripe and ready

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poriculture and Live-stock. Rice.

Tobacco.

The tobacco grown is of two kinds, ballhi with small leaves, and desi with leaves long and broad. The balkhi variety is considered inferior, and is little cultivated. Tobacco is grown almost entirely on well lands which have been much manured, it is only grown for home consumption.

Sugar-cane.

Sugar cane for eating (ponah) is of two kinds—the Saháran-The Saháranpuri is the larger, but puri and the Jallandri. is not so delicate, and so is little grown. The Jallandri was first introduced from Siálkot soon after annexation; it is eaten in the raw state, and is not manufactured, and is grown only in the neighbourhood of towns. There are three varieties of the ordinary cane grown in the district: (1) Dhaulu, which is the best, is most commonly grown, and gur of good quality is made from it. The best kind is grown in the bet tracts of the Gujrát and Phália tahsíls; that grown on dosháhi land is sweeter than that grown on chhamb land. (2) Treru is grown on sailáb land, it is harder and less sweet than dhaulu. (3) Chinkhi is grown in zail Gangwál; it is small and thin, and does not yield good gur. Much of the cane grown in the district, especially in the western part of Phália tahsíl, is very poor, and is most often used as fodder for cattle: sufficient gur is not produced for the requirements of the district, and a considerable amount is annually imported... The cultivation of cane is not popular, the crop requires too much water and attention, and occupies the land too long. fibre of sugar-cane, which remains after the juice is expressed, is known as pachhi, and is used for making ropes for the Persian wheel and for small mats (khere).

Masúr, tárámira, sarson.

Masúr is generally grown on new sailáb land, the land of Khojiánwála is noted for it. Linseed is largely grown on the river lands of Tahsíl Khárián; in other parts it is grown generally as a border to wheat fields, and seldom in a field by itself. Túrámira is grown on hilly ground, and is usually the first crop sown after the hill has been rendered fit for cultivation. It is entirely a báráni crop, and on the hills to the north of the Pabbi, it grows particularly well, and its grain is larger than in other parts. Green tárámira is used as fodder for camels and goats; oil is made from its seed, and the oil-cake is used as food for cattle. The sarson, or mustard, grown is of two kinds, black and tarpakhi. The black sarson is a rabi crop and is grown all over the district to some extent, chiefly on light báráni lands. not, however, grown mixed with wheat to the same extent as in districts east of Lahore. The leaves of both kinds are used as fodder for cattle, and when green, are eaten by the zamindars as salad. Oil is made from the seed, and the refuse is given to

cattle. The tarpakhi species is a kharif crop, and is usually grown on well lands, entirely for fodder, it is seldom used for extracting oil, as the oil is much inferior.

Másh is grown mostly in the western and northern parts of the Gujrát tahsíl, in the other tahsíls it is grown to a very small extent. It is imported from Manawar in Jammu territory. grains. Kangni and swank are cultivated with crops of maize on well irrigated lands, and come to maturity before the maize crop. The grains are used by Hindús as (phalohár) food on occasions of fasting (barat). China is grown in both kharif and rabi harvests; the crop comes to maturity in two months and a half from the time of sowing. Mandal or chalodara is cultivated to a small extent on land irrigated from wells, and is chiefly eaten by the poorer classes. Til is grown in all tahsils. In Phália bár whole fields are sown with it, but in the other tabsils it is more often found as a border to a field, like linseed, or mixed with other crops. The white variety is used for making comfits. Kasumba or safflower is grown in wheat fields; the flower is used for making a dye, and the leaves are given as fodder to cattle.

Poppy is grown to a very small extent, chiefly in the Bet Jhelam circle, tahsil Phália. Arorás purchase the standing crop from the cultivators and extract opium. Kalaf, or vasman, is grown in the neighbourhood of Kiladar, and is used for dyeing the beard and hair black; indigo is not made from it. The kalaf of Kiladár is famous, and is even valued at Lahore, where it finds a good market.

A considerable area in this district was demarcated during Arboriculture and the proceedings of regular settlement as the property of forests. Government. These lands are known according to their position as rakhs or belies, and are partly under the management of the Forest Department, and partly under the control of the Deputy Commissioner. The rakhs are mostly studded about the bár between Dingáh and the Shahpur boundary, two are situated in the south-east of the district, and the largest, the Pabbi reserve, runs almost parallel to the Jhelam river, at a distance of about five miles from it. The belás are alluvial lands on the banks of the Chenáb and Jhelam, which were taken up by Government as being in excess of the requirements of the villages. Captain Mackenzie explains the principle upon which these rakhs were demarcated, and declared Government property, as follows:-

"Land, however, remained, especially towards the south, greatly out of proportion to the capabilities, numbers, and resources of the population. The bar people had their mainstay principally in cattle, not in agriculture. The consequence was the establishment of tirni. This tax was in force for most of the time of Rája Guláb Singh's kárdárship. The iláqa of Dingah, consisting of about 120 villages, was estimated to yield Rs. 10,000 tirni. This tax, however, was overlooked during our early assessments, and it would be neither politic nor just to revive it, for our subsequent policy involved the appropriation as Government rakhe of all excessive waste, and of the remainder a considerable portion is being brought under the plough. The general rule when making such appropriation was to loave uncultivated land in the proportion of 5 to 1 of cultivated; and it has been wisely determined that until this large extent of culturable but

Chapter IV, A. Agriculture, Arboriculture and Live-stock.

Miscellaneons

Poppy and kalaf.

Chapter IV, A.

Agriculture, Arboriculture and Live-stock.

forests.

uncultivated land within the area of villages be brought considerably under the plough, these rakhs shall not, as a rule, be leased for purposes of cultivation. While, therefore, we justified the renunciation of tirni, no real hardship was felt by the village proprietors. I have said that cultivation is being increased, but it will doubtless take a long time to bring all these uncultivated tracts into cultivation. This much, bowever, may be hoped for, and is, indeed, in some measure Arboriculture and already achieved, that the people will soon depend upon the produce of their cultivation, and not upon their cattle, for subsistence. When we came to assess, only 36 per cent. of the total area was found to be cultivated."

> Most of the Phália rakhs (the bár rakhs) are entirely level, while the Pabbi is a low chain of hills, cut up with endless deep, and often precipitous ravines. Dhúl and Mári rakhs are on the old high bank of the Chenáb, and the latter, though level, is also intersected with ravines. The belás are generally bounded on one side at least by the river, while the other boundaries, as well as those of the rakhs are village lands. From their position, they are liable to considerable variation in area from year to year from the action of the rivers. the settlement of 1891-93 proposals were submitted in accordance with instructions of Government to constitute the belas on the Chenáb "reserved forests." The Pabbi reserve and the bár raklis had been gazetted reserved forests under the Forest Act in 1890. The belás on the Jhelam river have not been reserved, their area in most cases is very trifling, and owing to the limits of the villages being fixed, there is no probability that their area will increase by alluvion, in the same manner in which the Chenáb belás have grown.

> The chief tree vegetation of the bar rakhs is the jand, karir, dhak and malah; while phulái, with a sprinkling of kikár, dhak and tahli are the common trees of the Pabbi; and also of Dhul and Mári, where there is a larger proportion of kikar and tahli. The jand produces a fruit called sangri, which is much eaten by the poorer classes. Dilla, the fruit of the karir, is sold in the bazár at 4 pies a sér for the manufacture of pickles. The bár rakhs are open and thinly wooded, while the Pabbi is simply dotted, here and there, with a bush, the remains of virgin forest. No attempt has been made to plant the bar rakhs, but plantings of kikar chiefly have been annually made in the Pabbi unsuccessfully. Many of the belás contain a small plantation of tahli from sowings, and the trees have grown well showing that the soil is suited to the growth of this tree, but the area under trees is very small compared with the total area of the belás. No new sowings have been made in the belas for many years, probably because the income derived from the sale of grass is larger than could be hoped for from the sale of wood. forests are leased annually for grazing, sometimes for only a few months of the year, and sometimes for the whole year; in some cases they are retained under direct control, and a charge made on all cattle grazing, in others the rakhs remain closed for the whole year. For the purpose of pasturage the rakhs and belás are much valued by the people; a large number of villages are dependent upon them for the support of surplus cattle, young stock, and milch-kine out of milk; and as long

ago as 1868, they used to let at from 6 to 8 annas an acre for grazing purposes, notwithstanding that the greater number of them are situated in the Phália bár. In the Phália tahsíl there is often a mutual arrangement between the villages that when grass is scarce in the river villages, cattle are sent to the bár Arbon for grazing, and when grass is scarce in the bár cattle are sent forests. to villages who have leased the bela grazing. The administration of the belás seems to leave something to be desired, as the bela reserve is often situated in the midst of the village lands surrounded by cultivation, and should the lease of such bela be given to an outside contractor, as is often the case, there is always friction, resulting often in criminal charges. Again many of the belás are not separated by a definite boundary, one from the other, and being leased to separate parties the weaker party is sure to suffer.

Chapter IV, A.

Agriculture, Arboriculture and Live-stock.

Arboriculture and forests.

The following table shows the name and area of the principal Government preserves:—

Taheil.		Name of preser		Area in acres.	Under control of	
		W				
Gujrát		Bela Bahlolpur	•••		53	Forest.
		,, Kaulowála			77	,,
		" Siyan		[42	21
		"Kotli Gohán	•••		72	"
		"Sádhoki	•••	1	35	,,
		" Náth	•••]	210	,,
		,, Pindi Tátár			248	,,
		" Mohla			2	Dy. Commr.
		" Chak Gillan		}	176	Forest.
		" Langa	•••		170	,,
		Gházi Chak		,	5	,,
		Rakh Mári	•••	1	998	,,
		" Dhul	•••		560	,,
Khárián		Pabbi			25,298	Forest.
		Rakh Shah Kuli	•••	•••	202	Dy. Commr.
Phália	•••	Rakh Rasúl	•••		898	Forest.
		" Chimmu	•••		3,007	,,
		" Gohar	•••		2,401	٠,,
		,, Bukan	•••		1,680	,,
		" Backhar	•••		601	,,
		,, Bhiki		•••	3,806	"
		,, ,, Kadím	•••		1,830	,,
		", Soháwa Jadíd	***	•••	1,406	,,
		" Shahidanwála	•••		590	,,
		,, Wasu	•••	•••	1,106	,,
		,, Minárgarh	•••	•••	800	,,
		", Tarauniawáli	•••		315	,,
		,, Tibi Tárár	•••		207	,,
		Bela Sadulahpur	•••	•••	284	,,
		" Long	•••	•••	372	,,

1,189 126

...

...

200

1,616

62

Chapter IV, A.			,			_		,
Agriculture, Ar- boriculture and Live-stock.	Tabsíl.		Name of Pre	serve.		Area in acres.	Under cor	ntrol
Arboriculture and forests.	بدلعم جيوبنيسيسين				- H	·	,	,
	Phália	711	Bela Kámoki " Charki " Narang " Khosar " Mushtarka " Jukálián " Thatta Alia " Ranmal " Sahanpal " Randiáli	 		105 86 128 74 460 1,013 578 48 91 257	Forest. '' '' '' '' '' '' '' '' '' '' '' '' '	

Kala Shádián

Burj Hassan and Gahna

Chhanni Maghlán ...

Jago Kádirabad

Fárukpur

Table No. XXII shows the number of cattle and stock in the district at various periods. The enumeration is made by patwaris, and the figures are probably less reliable than those of any other return. Few camels are kept in the district, though they are used in the cold weather to carry salt to Kashmir territory from the railway, but in the hot weather go away to Shahpur or to the bar villages in which there is graz: ing. The number of asses is probably understated as they are the most general means of transport in the district. Sheep and goats are kept in Phália and Khárián, and are particularly numerous in the villages in the south-west of Phália. The closing of the reserved forests, including the Pabbi to goats and camels, will probably in a few years considerably affect the numbers.

Horses.

The people of the district are very fond of horses, and in Khárián most men of any substance keep mares for breeding. The breed is of average excellence, and is yearly improving owing to the foreign blood introduced into the country. Only the fillies as a rule are kept by the breeders, the colts being either bought up by dealers who go round the country, or sold at the annual fairs. The people are unable, they say, to keep the colts on account of their becoming troublesome, so that they cannot, like the fillies, be fed and tended by the women and children of the household.

Horse and mule

An annual horse show is held at Gujrát during the last breeding operations, fortnight in March. Rs. 1,250 are sanctioned for distribution in prizes from Imperial Funds to animals from the Gujrát, Siálkot and Jhelam Districts, which are alone allowed to compete. In addition to the amount mentioned above a further sum is sanctioned from Provincial Funds for expenses connected

with the show, and the District Board usually makes a contribution towards the cost of amusements and of extra prizes for cattle. The show was formerly held in Jhelam, but by reason of the falling-off in entries in that district, Gujrát was fixed, both on account of its more central position, and on account of the larger number of horses in the Gujrát District. The number of mares and horses, which appeared in the show during the last five years, the number of mares branded during these years, and the number of foals reported are shown below:—

Chapter IV, A.

Agriculture Arboriculture and Live-stock.

t of Horse and male The breeding operations.

Year.		Horses attending the show.	Number of mares branded.	Number of foals reported.		
1889		•••		800	30	120
1890	•••	,		851	35	112
1391	•••		:	726	38	110
1892	•••		•••	676	40	119
1893	•••	•••		777	28	95
					ł .	

The number of mares branded for horse-breeding is as under:—

Tahsíl Gujrát	•••	•••	•••	***	•••	247
Tahsíl Khárián	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	233
Tahsíl Phália	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	97
		T	otal Di	strict	•••	577

The decrease in the numbers attending the fair during the last three years is attributable to the opening of local shows in both Siálkot and Jhelam, the latter was started in 1893; small owners cannot manage to prepare their ponies for more than one show, and of course by preference go to the show in their own district.

The Government system of horse breeding operations was introduced in 1873. Horse stallions are kept at Gujrát, Khárián and Dingah, and donkey stallions at Phália in addition to the above stations. One zilladár and one salutri are employed by the Department, and one salutri is employed by the District Board.

The cattle are of the ordinary Panjab breed, though somewhat improved in point of size by the introduction in 1854 of 24 bulls from Hissár. The cattle of the bár and Gujar are considered the best. Zamíndárs, however, purchase their best bullocks from the Ráwalpindi District. The larger cattle, however, are said by the people to require higher and more artificial feeding than those of the indigenous breed, and the cows to give less milk. The increase in size, therefore, is not without its compensating drawbacks. On the subject admitted to of the grazing of cattle, Colonel Waterfield has the following remarks:—

Cattle.

Chapter IV, B.

Occupations, Industries and Commerce. Cattle. "The grazing of the cattle in highly cultivated and thickly populated tracts is becoming yearly more difficult. From May to 15th June the cattle are fed in the stubble of the newly-cut spring crops, or in any waste which may be available. From the middle of June to the end of July the cattle are stall-fed upon chopped straw, and in irrigated tracts upon moth and chari (there called char), which have been raised for the purpose. The large cattle-owners send all the animals they can spare to the grazing lands in the bar or on the river banks, for which they have to pay eight annas per buffale and four annas per cow. In August the rain grass has sprouted. Those who have grazing enclosures feed their cattle there, and others in the fields until they are ploughed; after these are ploughed, the cattle pick up a scanty fare along the edges of the fields. In September and October the cattle are in the grazing lands all day, and at night they get bundles of chari; owners having no grazing lands feed entirely on chari. From November to the middle of December the cattle are fed in the day time in the stubble fields of the autumn crops, and at night npon the stalks and straw or chopped moth. From the 15th December to the end of Jannary cattle are stall-fed upon the straw of the autumn crops. In February, March and April, the cattle are fed on green crops—corn, sarshaf, maina, senji,—chopped up with straw.

"The high value of grazing may be estimated from the fact that the Government rakhs let for six annas, and the island preserves belás, for nine annas an acre for grazing purposes; and this, although the rakhs are scattered about the bár in the Phália tabsil, where only 22 per cent of the village lands is cultivated.

"The rates usually charged for grazing by the lessees are as follows:-

					712.		۲,	
Camels	•••	•••	•••	•••	0	8	0 per	r mensem.
Horses and ponies	•••	•••	•••	•••	0	4	0	,,
Cows and bullocks	•••	•••	•••	•••	0	4	Ŏ	**
Buffaloes Sheep and goats	•••	•••	•••	•••	, U	8	6	,,
Donkeys	•••	•••	•••	•••	0	0	6	**
Toursol 2	•••	•••	***	***	U	υ	U	**

· Renn

and sometimes more or less according to number of animals grazed."

SECTION B.—OCCUPATIONS, INDUSTRIES AND COMMERCE.

Occupations of the people.

Table No. XXIII shows the principal occupations followed by males of over 15 years of age as returned at the census of 1881. But the figures are perhaps the least satisfactory of all the census statistics, for reasons explained in the Census Report, and they must be taken subject to limitations which are given in some detail in Part II, Chaptar VIII of the same Report. The figures in Table No. XXIII refer only to the population of

-		
Population.	Towns.	Villages.
Agricutural Non-agricultural	11,552	389,552 258,167
Total	42,396	646,719

15 years of age and over. The figures in the margin show the distribution of the whole population into agricultural and non-agricultural, calculated on the assumption that the number of women and children dependent upon each male of over 15 years of age is the same. These figures, however, include as

whatever his occupation. These figures, however, include as agricultural only such part of the population as are agriculturists pure and simple; and exclude not only the considerable number who combine agriculture with other occupations, but also the much larger number who depend in great measure for their livelihood upon the yield of agricultural operations.

Colonel Waterfield gives the number of heads of families who were entered in the last Settlement record as proprietors or tenants as follows:—Muhammadans, 84,173; Hindús, 8,522, total 92,695. He classed his population as follows:—

Chapter IV, B.

Occupations, Industries and Commerce.

Occupations of the people.

	Gujrát. Khárián.		Phália.	Total.
Hindu agricultural Do. non-agricultural Mussalmán agricultural Do. non-agricultural	16,782	4,945	4,074	25,801
	20,944	8,937	13,813	43,694
	126,093	110,031	76,333	312,457
	80,932	44,963	45,020	170,915
Total agricultural Do. non-agricultural	142.875	114,976	80,407	338,258
	101,876	53,900	58,833	214,609
Total	244,751	168,876	139,240	552,867

More detailed figures for the occupations of both males and females will be found at pages 124 to 132 of Table No. XIIA. and in Table No. XIIB. of the Census Report of 1881. The figures for female occupations, however, are exceedingly incomplete.

The Table No. XXIIIA. shows the number of persons employed in the principal occupations, as enumerated at the census of 1891. No statistics have been furnished showing the number of agriculturalists and non-agriculturalists at the time of census. The Census Table No. XVIIC. gives the number of persons whose occupation is purely agricultural, or who combine agricultural with other occupations, but the district figures of this table have not been supplied. Examination of the figures is difficult, as a slight inspection shows how little reliance can be placed upon them. About the detailed figures the Census Provincial Superintendent wrote in 1892: " As we " take smaller items, however, and descend to the particular occu-"pation, or the particular district or city, the effect of errors in "classification became more marked, and in practical matters of "local administration, the census figures are to be looked on "rather as useful guides, than as exact statement of the actual "facts. I would not deny that in many cases the Census Tables "may present an accurate idea of the occupations even of a tabsíl "or town, but as a rule they would, in the absence of complete "information regarding the classification adopted, be subject to "some misconception." The number of persons employed in pasture and agriculture embrace 59 per cent. of the total population, the number employed in preparation and supply of material substances form 22 per cent. of total population. number who are shown under other heads do not exceed 10 per cent. for any single occupation. Full details of specific occupations under the general heads are given in Table No. XVII, Part B, of the Census Report of 1891.

Chapter IV, B. Occupations, Industries and Commerce.

Principal indus-

Table No. XXIV gives statistics of the manufacture of the district as they stood in 1881-82. The manufactures of the district, with the exception of the shawl industry at Jalalpur, and the manufacture of koftgari at Gujrat, are of a homely description. Country cloth of ten kinds-dhotar, painsi, chaunsi, tries and manufac- khes, chautahí, susi, lungi, dastar, gazibár and chhísí-is made in the villages. In 1867 the number of looms at work in the district is stated to have been as under:-

In the Gujrát to In the Khárián In the Phália	hsil	•••	4,472 2,780 1,450
		Total '	8,702

The total outiurn of cloth from these looms during the same year is estimated at the value of Rs. 17,40,000, of which cloth to the value of about Rs. 2,00,000 is stated to have been exported, and the remainder kept for home consumption. outturn however is believed to have been very largely overestimated. The value of English piece-goods annually purchased in the district is stated to be about Rs. 57,000, but the figures cannot be relied upon. Phulkárís are also worked by women of the villages. They are usually made for wear, and not for sale, and are not remarkable for their work. The manufacture of cloth known in the Punjab as Gujráti has of late years sprung into existence. This cloth is an imitation in cotton of English checks and tweeds. It finds a ready sale in other districts owing to its good wear and cheapness, and to its suitability for clothes of European fashion.

The carpenter's work may also be noted among the manufactures, as it is of remarkably good description, more especially the manufacture of chairs. The Guirát chair is known and supplied throughout the Panjab; it is a handsome and comfortable arm chair, upholstered in red or green leather and costs Rs. 22. There is a considerable trade in camp furniture, and ordinary furniture is prepared in Gujrát and sent to larger towns and cantonments for sale. Shisham cart wheels and wheels for Persian wells are also exported from Gujrát.

Carving in wood is finding more and more favor in the towns, it is largely done for door panels and cornices, but in. the villages, especially in the west of the district, the carved doorways form a special feature in the architecture of the houses. All men with any pretensions have a carved doorway, the carving varies in quality according to the means of the owner. The carver is very often one of the village tarkhans, who receives his food and clothes for the time he is working (which often extends to six months) and but little besides.

Damascening.

The industry which is most peculiar to the district is that of damascening (koftgari) or inlaying iron with gold or silver wire. This art, formerly applied extensively to the adorument of

armour, has now centred mainly upon Gujrát and Siálkot, and is confined to peaceful objects, such as caskets, vases, combs, brooches, bracelets and the like. The mode of procedure is thus described:—

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Occupations, Industries, and Commerce.

Damascening.

"Koftgari is done by first drawing out the pattern on the steel surface with a hand steel needle or sildi. This leaves a line sufficiently deep to catch a very fine gold wire. The wire is then hammered into the iron according to the pattern and lines already drawn. The whole is then heated and again hammered, and the surface is polished with a white porons stone. Where the soft gold is required to be spread, the rubbing and hammering are repeated with greater force. The gold used is very pure and soft. The results produced by this delicate but simple process are extremely pleasing, and the craftsmen do a thriving business, the 'Gajrát ware' meeting with a ready sale among Europeans throughout North-Western India, and being recognised as a specialité of Panjab art. The rough undersides of the inlaid work and the joints, which were formerly left bare or rudely marked with silver in a check pattern, are now sometimes finished off by the aid of electro-gilding. The defect in all work of this description is its liability to rust; it should be carefully rubbed with a bit of wash leather or soft cloth daily in damp weather, and even with this precaution it cannot always be kept from discolouration in the rainy season. The cost of koftgari articles is as follows:—Card trays, Rs. 10 to 30 each; caskets, ditto; candlesticks per pair, ditto; paper knives, Rs. 2 to 5; brooches, Rs. 2 to 6; suráhis, Rs. 5 to 10, &c., &c. There are seven kojtgar manufacture shops in Gujrát giving employ to 32 artificers; the gross outturn of work per annum is to the value of about Rs. 4,400, of which the net profit to the proprietors would be about Rs. 1,132. Specimens of the work have been forwarded to various exhibitions and favourably noticed."

Mr. Lockwood Kipling, Principal of the Lahore School of Art, kindly furnished the following note on this and the chairmaking industry, which seem to be the only special industries of the district:—

"Damascened iron is wrought at Gujrát in the same way as at Siálkot. Much has been said and written as to the possibilities of this art, which seems oddly out of place in the modern scheme of native life. Abjectly poor workmen toiling in squalid houses with the simplest and rudest tools, produce costly and sometimes magnificent objects fit only for the decoration of the sumptuous homes of the wealthy. The art in its present state is really a revival of recent date. Damascening in gold was undoubtedly practised until the Sikh times, and was freely used on arms. But after the annexation it appeared likely to die out when its application to fancy articles for European use was suggested. Mr. Spence, an English gentleman of some technical knowledge, who lived at Sialkot, would seem to have been the most zealous promoter of this new business, but it was warmly taken up by several officers of Government and others. The costliness of the work is a bar to its exportation in large quantities. There is scarcely any limit to the demand for decorative objects costing from a sovereign to a shilling, as the Japanese artificers bave learned, but beyond that price the demand falls off in an apparently nureasonable ratio. It is not easy to make a good piece of koft-work cheaply. And the work-men are grievonsly handicapped in the race for popular favour by their ignorance of the many changes in European fashions. The blacksmith too, who really makes the articles to be decorated, never moves from his place, and goes on repeating forms that have grown obsolete. It is not often in Indian work that the European principle of division of labour is carried ont to such an extent as in this trade. The smith forges the helmet, salver, shield or casket independently it would seem of the damascener, who confines himself exclusively to its decoration with gilded wire placed on the roughened surface in ornamental forms and rubbed into its place with burnishers. The tari-i-nishan work is now but seldom practised, and it is doubtful whether at any time it was more than a costly variety of damascene, applied only to the most highly prized objects. The pattern is first cut rather deeply in the iron or steel, and the wire is laid in the channel and burnished flat. Practically this is almost imperishable, for even when the object is heavily rusted the gold lines reappear when the rust is cleared

Chapter IV, B.

Occupations,
Industries.
and Commerce

Damascening.

away. In the ordinary work of to-day the gilding adhores with surprising tenacity and does not suffer from the rusting of the iron as much injury as might be expected.

"It is to be feared the profits of the trade are but small. There is no great difficulty in the work as now practised. In former days it is probable that damascening was a part of the armourer's craft, and that he forged the form in addition to decorating its surface. The designs of the ornament are all Persian in character, excepting the imitations of the vinc leaf dessert plates originally made in green glazed wodgwood ware. Excepting the shields and helmets and some of the caskets, all the forms are trivial, and might be classed as stationers' good.

Chair-making.

"A Civilian named Capper has the credit of having originated an industry which, though it is not very largo, is certainly improving. He gave the local carpenters an English folding chair with a leather back attached by hooks and the article has since been made in great numbers, and is known as the Capperina or Gujrát chair. But the Gujrát carpenters do not confine themselves to this model. About a dozen kinds of camp and other chairs are regularly made. The wood used is shisham, and the work is excellent and exceedingly cheap when bought direct from the makers. A largo Capperina casy chair with good dyed leather enshion costs about Rs. 25, and smaller eamp chairs, neat and well finished, from Rs. 7 to Rs. 4-8 each. The leading makers—Ismail and Kutb Dín of Gujrát—were awarded a certificate and medal at the Calcutta International Exhibition for chairs, which bore comparison with any other camp furniture exhibited."

Course and nature of trade.

There are no statistics available for the general trade of the district. The district is peculiarly well situated for trade being traversed by the North-Western and Sind-Sagar Railways and the Grand Trunk Road; in addition it is bordered by two navigable rivers the Jhelam and Chenáb, and is one of the main routes to Káshmír. In an ordinary year the grain produce of the district is largely in excess of local consumption, while the extensive flocks and herds that pasture in the bár yield large quantities of ghi, wool and hides. surplus produce is either carried along the line of rail to Lahore and Multan, or to Káshmír and Ráwalpindi. Until the opening of the railways the rivers were the main trade routes, and they are still so used to some extent. But there are also land routes of importance crossing the district. The Grand Trunk Road passing through the northern part of the district, drains the tracts which are more remote from the two great rivers; the Bhimbar route from Kashmír passes from the north down upon the town of Gujrát; the road from Manáwar in the Jammu territory passes through Káriánwála to Gujrát; while the old salt route from Pind Dádan Khán to Lahore passes through the Phália or southern tahsíl. The road to Siálkot passes from Gujrát through Naushera, and from Gujrát to Pind Dádan Khan through Diuga. All these roads are unmetalled, and the transport is done by camels, pack horses and bullocks. The nature of the trade in former years is illustrated in Captain Waterfield's Settlement Report by a tabular statement of the imports and exports of the entire district for the year 1867-68. The table shows the imports to a value of Rs. 4,68,000, and exports to a value of Rs. 6,71,000. The following are some of the principal items:-

70	21	Export and	T 1	TI J.	1967 69
Trincipus	wems of	мироть ини	, income .	L7 wwe,	1001-00.

Chapter IV, B. Occupations,

Industries,

Course and nature

and Commerce. Description. Weigh:. Value. Remarks. of trade. Maunds. Rs. { Import ... Export ... 550 11,750 From Jammu territory. Ghi6,230 Exported to Amritsar. 1,33,400 Woollen and (Import pashmina goods. 2,00,000 Exported to ditto. Export Import .. Wheat Export ... 134.576 2,90,446 Ditto to Multán and Sakkar. Import ... 6,978 22,194 From Pind Dádan Khan. Salt Export ... 20,204 5,314 From Jammu territory and Import ... Siálkot District. Gur Export ... 5,000 15,003 Exported to Multán. Import ... Thread 730 14,600 Export ... Exported to Multán. 91,310 Import ... 43,190 From Jammu territory, and Timber consumed in this district. Export ... From Amritsar and Lahore. 56,575 Import ... Cloth Export .. Import ... 17,000 1,35,000 From Amritsar. Iron ... Export ... ••• Import ... 15,500 From Amritsar and Lahore. Gold & silver ... Export ... Import ... 20 12,656 From Amritsar and Lahore. Silk ... Export ... 25,010 5,802 From Jammu territory and Import ... Shakkar Siálkot. Export ... 4,695 5,510 From Amritsar. Import ... Sugar ... { Export ... ••• ٠., { Import ... Export ... Cleaned cotton 67,840 5,542 Exported to Multán and Sakkar. 10,000 4,006 From Sháhpur District. (Import ... Sajji ... Export ... 960 5,302 Turmeric Import ... From Jammu and Hazára. (haldi) Export ... Import ... 32 2,560 From Jammu territory. Wool ... Export ... 9,000 Import ... 6,000 ditto. Ditto Sheep & goats Export ... (Import ... 4,500 3,000 Ditto ditto Skins ... ¿ Export ... 300 3,000 (Import ... From Amritsar. Soap ...

Export ...

{ Import ... { Export ...

{ Import ... Export ... Import ...

cloth { Import ... Export ...

Opium

Fruits

Country

680

522

60,400

Yards.

8

8,000

3,000

5,220

4,520

Exported to Multán.

Exported to Multán.

From Shahpur.

From Kábul.

Chapter IV, B.

Principal items of Export and Import Trade, 1867-68—concld.

Occupations, Industries, and Commerce. Course and nature

of trade.

9	Description.	Weight.	value.	Remarks.
		Maunds.	Rs.	
Indigo	{ Import Export	237	3,055	From Amritsar and Multan.
-		J	***	
Copper	and (Import	***	5,300	From Gujránwála
kansı	vessels (Export		***	
Cattle	Import	[5,800	From Amritsar
	-		740	Exported to Mánjah, District Amritsar.
Oil-jars	ofskin ∫Import			
	of skin { Import (a) { Export	,	2,500	Exported to Amritsar and other districts.
Sacks (c	hat) { Import Export		***	
muons (c	"" (Export	1,900	2,850	Exported to Amritsar.

Among the items omitted from the statement as given by Captain Waterfield, the following may be mentioned: cotton seeds are exported to Multán, value Rs. 4,703; másh and múng (pulses) imported from Jammu, value Rs. 4,000; charas imported from Jammu, value Rs. 1,200; gram exported and imported, aggregate value Rs. 2,720; jowár and bájra exported to Pind Dádan Khan, value Rs. 2,370. The statement is concluded with the following remarks:—

"The external trade is chiefly with the following towns and districts:—The Jammu or Kashmír territory gives ghi, gur, timber, shakkar, some pulses, turmeric, wool, sheep and goats' skins, charas, spices. A great deal of this is through traffic and it receives nothing in return. Amritsar and Lahore take ghi, wool, oil-jars of skin (kuppa) and sacking; and provide English piece-goods, iron, gold and silver, silk, sugar, spices, soup, some indige and cattle. Multán and Sakkar take wheat, gur, thread, cotton, cotton-seed, soap, country cloth, oil, and provide only indige. Pind Dádan Khan takes grain of all kinds, and provides salt. Sháhpar sends sajji and opinm; Siálkot sonds shakkar; Hazára sends turmeric; Gujránwála sonds copper vessels; and Kábul such dried fruits as are required. The trade is just what might have been expected in a thoroughly agricultural district, with only one town that boasts any particular manufactory, that of Jalálpur, where shawls are made by Kashmíri artisans for the Amritsar market. This trade, however, has been long on the decline, and shows no signs of revival."

The local trade of the four principal markets in the district during the year 1883 is given in Chapter VI with the discription of each town. The following note on the imports and exports, as they at present stand, has been furnished by the Deputy Commissioner:—

Exports.

"The principal export trade of the district is in wheat. Before the railway line was opened, wheat used to be exported to Multán and Sakkar down the rivers Jhelam and Chenáb. Now it is carried by rail. Last year wheat was sent down to Karáchi for transport to England in large quantities. The grain was carried directly to the Railway stations without passing through municipalities.

"Mustard was formely exported to Lahore in small quantities, but last year it was exported in large quantities to Karáchi. Barley is exported in very small quantities to Rawalpindi. Bajra is sometimes exported to the neighbouring districts. Rice is sometimes exported to Pind Dadan Khan and Jhelam in small quantities. Kasumbha is exported in small quantities to Gujránwála, Siálkot and Ráwalpindi. The oil of mustard, tára mira, sesame, and linseed, pressed principally at Haslanwala, in the Phalia tahsil, is exported to Pind Dádan Khan, Lahore and Multau. The extensive flocks and herds that pasture in the $b\acute{a}r$ yield large quantities of ghi, wool and hides. Ghi is exported to Amritsar and Lahore, and that of the $b\acute{a}r$ is much prized. The Khojás of Bhera purchase the hides and horns, and export them to Bombay. Wool of a coarse kind is manufactured into bhuras, which are exported to Jamma. Sacks of the goat's hair and of wool are made at Haslanwala, but they only suffice for local demand, and arc seldom exported Fourteen years ago, shawls of Kashmír pashm (wool of the finer sort) were mannfactured at Jalalpur and Gujrat, and exported to Amritsar for France. Since the Franco-Prussian war the demand for them in that quarter has almost ceased; and now no shawls are manufactured. Pashmina chadars of wool of inferior quality, called Wahabshahi, are now manufactured at Jalálpur, and are exported to Ráwalpindi, and also taken by the Khojús to Hindústán for sale in the winter Country cloth—the principal marts for which are Shádiwál, Kunjah, and Jalalpur—cleaned cotton, and thread are exported to Rawalpındi, Peshawar, and Pind Dadan Khan. For the last two years the outturn of cotton has been less, and the exports have falleu off. Sútri and tât aro made of hemp hy the Labánas of Tánda, Kila Sura Singh, Khori, Bhakharyáli, Buddhan, Hadka, Perosbah, and Buzargwál, and are exported to Ráwalpindi, Gnjránwála and Lahore. Soap is manufactured at Haslánwála, and is exported in small quantities to Jammu and Jhelam. Jars and scalepans of skin are made at Kiranwala in the Kharian tahsil, and are exported to Mooltan. Ghi and oil are always exported in these jars. Lime is mannfactured at Haslánwála, in the Phália tahsíl, and at Puran in the Khárián tahsíl, and what remains after meeting the local demand is exported to Lahore.

"The import of European piece-goods has increased during the last five years, as some new shops have been opened in the town of Guirát from Bhimbar and the neigbourhood of Jhelam purchase piece-goods from Gujrat. Salt comes from the Khewra Mines, and is exported to Jammu and Kashmír. Sugar (chini or khand) is imported from Benares, Jullundur, Hoshiarpur and Chandausi. Its import has increased of late years on account of the increased demand for it among the people. It is also exported to, Jammu and Kasbmir. Gur und shakkar are imported from Amritsar, Siálkot, Gurdáspur, and Jullundur. Petty traders carry salt on their ponies to Bajwat and hring back gur. Ghi of inferior quality comes from the Jammu territory in small quantities; it is not much esteemed. Mung and mash used to come from Nurpur. Rajauri, and Bhimhar in the Jammu territory; but since the opening of the railway line, they come to a larger extent from Ferozepore, Ludhiána, and Ráwalpindi. Grain comes mostly from the Mánjha and Málwa tracts. Begami rice of superior quality comes from Lahore; and the ordinary kind of rice from the Sialkot District. Turmeric (haldı) comes from Bajwat, and from Karachi, Benares and Saharanpur; and the turmeric from these places is considered to be better than that of Bajwat. Tea comes from Amritsar; but its import has fallen off since the decline of the shawl trade. Apples and pears come from Kashmir in winter; and almonds, raisins and dried fruits come from Kábul. Peaches, oranges, and pomegranates come from Lahore. Bhang and charas are brought from the Jammu territory; and opium from Jhawarián, in the Shahpur District, by license-holders, both for consumption in this district and for export to Amritsar. The drugs, spices, and articles sold by pansárís come from Amritsar and Karáchi; zirn (spice) in small quantities comes from Kashmír.

Wool of the Wahábsháhi kinds comes from Amritsar, but its import has decreased since the decline of the shawl trade. Lois are brought by Kashmíri traders in winter along with fruits, and are to a small extent purchased in this district from them on their way to Lahore. Cleaned cotton (rui) is sometimes imported from Saháranpur, Jagádhri, and Ludhiána, when the cotton crop of the district fails. Gold and silver are imported from Gujránwála, Amritsar, Calcutta and Bomhay for making ornaments. Vessels of Benares metal, copper, and brass are imported from Gujránwála and Amritsar, and to a small extent from Pind Dádan Khan and Daska. Their import is increasing. Stones for mills are imported from Benares their import has increased since the opening of the railway

Chapter IV, B.

Occupations, Industries, and Commerce.

Exports.

Imports.

Chapter IV, B.

Occupations, Industries, and Commerce. Imports. line. Deodar, sandal, chir logs and vala for rafters are brought down the Jhelam and Chenáb from the Jammu territory. Their import is increasing. Bahis for bedsteads are brought from the Jammu territory on ponies. Soap is imported from Gujránwála and Amritsar. The import of indigo is decreasing on account of the greater use of aniline colours and European coloured cloth and chintz. Indigo is imported from Khurja and Multan. Sajji comes from Sháhpur. Majith is brought from Amritsar, and is to a small extent purchased from the Kábul traders on their way there. Sheep and goats come from the Jammu territory. Cows and buffalocs are brought from Amritsar at the time of the Diwálí fair, and bullocks are brought from the Jhelam District.

Khojah traffic.

During the past 15 years a peculiar form of traffic has sprung up which is in the hands of the Khojahs of the district. Káfilahs of these men are in the habit of doing a profitable, though distant itinerant trade in country cloth goods. Proceeding with capital, they make purchases in Ambála, Delhi, &c., en route, and dispose of the wares to the agricultural community of the Lucknow, Cawnpore and other districts in Hindústán, to whom it is more convenient to purchase at. their homesteads than to proceed to towns for the purpose. The traders take earnest-money from the purchasers, the goods being sold partly on credit and at profit as high as 25 per cent. over the market prices. All arrears of payment are realised at harvest time. The Káfilahs do not always proceed to the same localities, but vary their visits according to the probable demand for goods. They consisted at first of Khojahs only; their good profits, however, attracted other classes; Kashmírís and even goldsmiths, butchers and others, whose respective trades were not prospering, joining in the above speculation.

Foreign trade.

Gujrát is one of the districts in which foreign trade is registered. Registration is effected at Daulatnagar, a village on the Bhimbar road, but it is probable that much of this trade passing to Kashmír escapes registration by taking a more direct route. The principal items of the import and export trade to and from Kashmír territory into the Gujrát District as ascertained at this post are shown below:—

Principal items of import trade from Kashmir in 1891-92.

Description.						Weight in mannds.		Value in rupees.
Ghi Gur Timber Turmeric Wool Sheep and g Skins Fruits Cattle Sarson Spices Tobacco	 					No.	11,783 1,247 503 217 457 16,577 6,138 13,416 94 2,905 2,356 1,362 3,143	2,72,704 6,646 545 4,755 6,241 39,858 1,56,944 54,114 2,792 17,430 9,424 7,216 15,715

CHAP. IV .- PRODUCTION AND DISTRIBUTION.

Principal items of export trade to Kashmir in 1891-92.

Chapter IV, C.

Prices, Weights
and Measures and
Communications.

Foreign trade.

Description.						Weight in maunds.	Valuc in rupees.
Salt						07 511	1.00.004
0	•••	•••	•••	•••	[65,741	1,89,004 $29,474$
C1 41	•••	•••	•••	•••		5,163	
	•••	•••	•••	•••		5,365	3,90,890
Cleaned coti	on	•••	•••	•••		711	11,799
Soap		•••	•••	•••	- ••• [851	12,386
Country clo	th	•••	•••	•••		644	27.545
Cattle	••	•••	•••	•••	[188	7,799
Medicines	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	1,338	18,298
Indigo	•••	•••	• • •	•••	۱ ا	171	21,088
Dyes	•••	•••	•••	•••	[672	4,829
Fruits	•••		•••	•••	[624	11,110
Pulses	•••	•••	•••	•••		2,364	5,972
Copper vess	els, &c.	•••	•••	•••	••• 1	1,100	48,372
Iron	144	•••	•••	•••		1,861	9,300
Kerosine oil		•••	•••	•••		4,149	29,143
Sajji		•••	•••	•••	1	41	102
Spices				•••	[362	13,640

SECTION C.—PRICES, WEIGHTS AND MEASURES AND COMMUNICATIONS.

Table No. XXVI gives the retail bazar prices of commodities for the last twenty years. The prices in the villages ruling somewhat lower. The wages of labor are shown in Table No. XXVII, and rent rates in Table No. XXI, but both sets of figures are probably of doubtful value. Prices rose in 1868-69 owing to the drought, and fell gradually during several years of plenty up till 1872-73. The fall was then hastened by the opening of the railway and increasing importation. In 1877 scarcity in the district, and famine in Kashmír, again raised prices considerably. Prices fell again at the close of the Kábul war, only to rise again with each succeeding fall in exchange, and with the large exports of wheat to Europe. Prices are far less subject to fluctuation according to the quality of the harvest than formerly, but even with a bumper crop remain high, owing to the large amount of grain purchased for export, and to consequent lessening of stocks throughout the country. In 1872 fuel had risen in price, owing to the strong demand for timber, and fuel on the new railway, but its price became easier in 1876 when coal was substituted for fuel for the locomotives. The wages of labor ruled high from 1872 to 1876, while the railway line was under construction, and have since remained high owing to high prices, and of late years to work on the Chhenáwán Canal.

Prices and wages.

Chapter IV, C.

Prices, Weights and Measures and Communications.

Interest.

The figures of Table No. XXXII give the value of land in rupees as shown in the revenue records of sales and mortgages. The quality of land, however, varies so enormously, and the value returned is so often fictitious, that but little reliance can be placed on those figures. Produce rents varying from one-half to one-third are general, the great majority being at the former rate. The rate of interest on loans varies according as the advance is made to zamindars or to money-lenders; on book debts secured by mortgage of land without possession, the rate demanded from zamindárs is two annas per rupee per mensem, and when the security is house property, or jewels pledged, then 1½ auna. From money-lenders the rate demanded is 8 annas per cent. per annum on jewels pawned; one per cent. when houses are mortgaged, and l1 per cent. on book debts. When grain is advanced to zamíndárs at seed time, half as much again is taken at harvest time, and if that sum is not paid then compound interest at the same rate at the next harvest.

Local weights and measures.

The local weights and measures are given below, for comparison with imperial weights and measures it may be stated that a local bigah is half an acre: a local topa of wheat contains very nearly two Government sers: a local maund is two-fifths of an imperial maund:—

Local land measure.

	gaz		•••	•••	•••	=	ī	sarsai or karam	
9	square	sarsai	•••	***	•••	==	1	marla.	
20	marlás	•••	•••	•••	•••	=	1	kanál.	
	kanáls	•••	•••	•••	•••	=	1	bigah.	
2	bigalis	•••	•••	•••	•••	=	1	ghumáo.	

Local grain measure.

4	jháwes or	hand	fuls	•••	•••	===	1	paropi.
		•••	•••	•••	•••	==	1	topa.
50	topás	•••	•••	•••	•••	==		pand.
4	pands		***			=	1	máni.

Local weights.

5	tolás	• • •	•••	•••	•••	=	1	chatták.	
4	chattáks	•••	•••		•••	=	1	paw-	
4	paws	•••	•••	•••	•••	==	1	sér.	
5	sérs	***	•••	•••	•••	=	1	panseri.	
40	sérs	•••	•••	•••		=	1	maund.	

Communications.

The figures given in the margin showt he communications of the district. Table No.

	====				of the district. Table No.
Commun	icatio	ns.		Miles.	XLVI shows the distances
Navigable rivers Railways Metalled roads Unmetlled roads			•••	118 72 48 605	from place to place as authoritatively fixed for the purpose of calculating travelling allowance.

The Chenáb and Jhelam are both navigable for country crafts throughout their courses through the district. The

mooring places, ferries and bridges, and the distance between them is shown below, following the downward course of each river. The management of all ferries is under the authorities and Measures and of other districts, and their income eredited to those districts:

Chapter IV. C. Prices, Weights Communications. Communications.

Rivers.	Stations,		Distance in miles.	Remarks.
CHRNAB.	Mári Kuluwál Bhakbariyáli Sodhra Kathála Kháuke Garhi Rámnagar Bahri		2½ miles from Surukhpur where the Chenáb enters the district. 2½ miles from Kuri 8 ,, ,, Mári 5 ,, ,, Kuluwál 3 ,, ,, Bhakhariyáli. 8 ,, ,, Sodhra 9 ,, ,, Kathála 5 ,, ,, Khánko 9 ,, ,, Garhi 8 ,, ,, Rámnagar 5 ,, ,, Rámnagar 5 ,, ,, Qádirabad 4 ,, ,, Qádirabad 4 ,, ,, Qádirabad	
Јивъм,	Jhelam Kot Khohár Puran Rasúl Mariyála Jalálpur Kikn	 ı.in	6 miles from Bhagnagare where the Jhelam enter the district. 4 miles from Jhelam 6 ,, ,, Kot 4 ,, ,, Khohár 4 ,, ,, Puran 4 ,, ,, Rasúl 11 ,, ,, Mariála	year. There is a subway on the railway bridge for passengers. A ferry throughout the year. Ditto. Ditto. Ditto. Ditto. Ditto.

The North-Western Railway from Delhi to Peshawar runs through the district for 36 miles with stations at Kathála, 4 miles from Wazirabad, Gujrát 4½ miles, Lála Músa 11½ miles. Khárián 9½ miles, Kariála 7 miles, and across the river to Jhelam • 5 miles. The Sind-Ságar Railway from Lála Músa to Multan runs through the district for 38 miles, with stations at Jaura 8 miles, Dingah 7 miles, Chelliánwála 6 miles, Pindi Baha-ud-dín 8 miles, Ala (flag station) 6 miles, Harriah 4 miles.

The following table shows the principal roads of the district, together with the halting places on them, and the conveniences for travellers to be found at each :-

Railways.

	138 CH	AP. IV.—PRO	DU	CTION	AND DISTRIBUTION.
Chapter IV, C.				1 <u>.g</u>	•
Prices, Weights and Measures and Communications Railways.	Ronto.	Halting place	ee.	Distance in Miles	Remarks.
·	Lahore and	Kathála	•••		Encamping ground, road-bungalow,
,	Pesháwar road in the Gujrát distriet, from K a t h á l a to Nanrangabád.	Gujrát	•••	5	telegraph office. Encamping-ground, dák bungalow, kaeheri, eivil station, road bungalow, railway station, polico office, metalled roads 5 milcs, telegraph office.
		Lála Musa	***	12	Eneamping-ground, sarái, police station, district rest-house, railway station, and rofroshment-room, metalled road 12 miles, tolegraph office.
		Khárián	•••	10	Encamping-ground and well, sarái, 2 large wells with steps, baolis; talisil court, police station, railway station, district rest-house, metalled road 10 miles, telegraph office, road bungalow.
		Kariála	•••	6	Railway station, telegraph office, metalled road 6 miles.
		Naurangabad		3	No railway station, but there is a pakka sarái and district rest-honse, police station, encamping-ground and well, metalled road 3 miles, road bungalow.
	Gujrát to Bhim-	Daulatnagar	•••	12	Sarái and district rest-house and post office, unmetalled road 12 miles.
	DGL.	Kotla	***	9	Sarái and district rest-house and un- metallod road 9 miles.
	Gujrát to Pind Dádan Khan.	Dulanwála	٠٢.	9	One drinking woll, but the encamping- ground is not demarcated, un- metalled road 9 miles.
		Dingah	•••	13	Encamping-ground and woll, sarái, district rest-honse, police station, post office, unmotalled road 13
		Mong	•••	12	miles, railway station. Eneamping-ground and well, sarái, district rest-house, unmetalled road 13 miles.
	Gujrát to Phália.	Kunjálı	•••	7	A large town, post office, unmetalled road 7 miles.
		Maggowál	•••	6	A large villago, post office, unmetalled road 6 miles.
		Pariánwáli		8	A largo villago, polico station and rest-house, post office, numetalled road 8 miles.
		Phália	•••	10	Sarái and well, encamping-ground not demareated, and district rest- lionse, talisíl court, unmotalled road 10 miles.
	Gujrát to Kriána- wála.	Jalálpur	•••	8	Municipal town, post and telegraph office, sarái and district rost-house, metalled road 8 miles.
		Kariánwála		9	Polico station and rest-house.

There are road bungalows at Kathála, Gujrat, Dhama, Khárián and Aurangabad, all under the Public Works Depart-There are district and police rest-houses at Sadullapur, and Measures and Phália, Kádirabad, Kothiála Shekhán, Soháwah Mong, Pahrián-Communications. wala, Dingah, on the west of the Grand Trunk Road; and at Kotla, Daulatnagar, Jalálpur and Kariánwála, on the east of the Grand Trunk Road.

Chapter IV, C. Prices, Weights Rest-houses.

The dâk bungalow at Gujrát is completely furnished and provided with servants. The road bungalows are furnished, but have no crockery, cooking utensils, or servants. The police and district rest-houses have furniture, cooking utensils and crockery with servants attached to a few.

There are imperial post offices at—

Gnjrát, M. Jalálpur, M. Knnjáh, M. Dingah, M. Kádirabad, M. Shádiwál, M. Bhagowál, M.

Daulatnagar, M. Kariánwála, M. Khárián, M. Kothiála Shekhán, M. Lakhanwál, M. Lála Musa, M. Tánda, M.

Maghowál, M. Phália, M. Pahriánwála, M. Mangat, M. Janra, M. Sarai Aurangabad, M. Kakráli, M.

and district post offices at—

Dharuwála, M.

Basúri, M.

Khohár, M.

There are money order offices at those marked M.

A line of telegraph runs along the length of the North-Western and Sind-Sagar Railways with a telegraph office at each railway station, and in addition there is a telegraph office in the civil lines at Gujrát, and in the town of Jalálpur.

Telegraph.

CHAPTER V.

ADMINISTRATION AND FINANCE.

SECTION A.—GENERAL.

Chapter V, A.

General.

Executive and
Judicial.

The Gujrát District is under the control of the Commissioner of Ráwalpindi, stationed at Ráwalpindi. The Judicial work is under the control of the Divisional and Sessions Judge, stationed at Jhelam. The head-quarter's staff of the district of a Deputy Commissioner, a Subordinate Judge and two Extra-Assistant Commissioners. Each tahsíl is in charge of a Tahsíldár assisted by a Náib. The village revenue staff is shown below:—

					Kani			
	T	AHSIL.			Office.	Field,	Patwárís and assistants.	
Gujrát			111		3	4	93-	
Khárián	•••	•••	•••		1	3	75	
Phália		•••	•••		1	3	79	
		Total	•••		5 ,	10	247	

There are three Munsiffs in the Gujrát District, viz.:—at Gujrát, at Dingáh, and at Jalálpur Jatán. The Munsiff at Gujrát has jurisdiction over 302 villages, of which 110 villages are in the eastern portion of tahsíl Phália, and lie to the south and east of the road which runs from Dingah to Kádírabád, through Helán and Phália; and 192 villages are in tahsíl Gujrát, some of which lie to the west of Gujrát, and the rest about four miles to the eastward. The Munsiff at Jalálpur has jurisdiction over 424 villages, of which 69 villages are in tahsíl Khárián, and lie to the north and east of the road which runs from Gujrát to Bhimbár; and 355 villages are in tahsíl Gujrát, outside the jurisdiction of the Munsiff at Gujrát. The Munsiff at Dingáh has jurisdiction over 704 villages, of which 477 villages are in tahsíl Khárián, and 277 of tahsíl Phália, outside the jurisdiction of the Munsiffs of Gujrát and Jalálpur.

Statistics of civil and revenue litigation are given in Table No. XXXIX.

There are no	11010	orary 1	aagistrat
Class of Police.	strength.	<u>- 50</u>	BUTION.
	Total stre	Standing guards.	Protection and detection.
District Imperial Municipal	307 63	57	250 63

Magistrates in the district. The Police force is controlled by a District Superintendent of Police. and Goals. The district lies in the western Police Circle, of which the head-quarters are at Ráwalpindi. The strength of the force is given in the margin.

Chapter V, A. General. Criminals, Police

The tendency of

late years has been to increase standing guards at the expense of the force available for protection and detection. In addition to this force about 900 village watchmen are entertained, and paid from the house-tax.

The thánás, or principal stations, are distributed as follows:--

Tahsíl Gujrát.

- (1) Gujrát. (2) Kariánwála.
- (3) Gujrát town.(4) Jalálpur town.

Tahsíl Khárián.

- (1) Khárián.(2) Lála Músa.
- (3) Naurangabád.
- (4) Dingáh.

Tahsíl Phália.

- (1) Kothiála Shekhán.
 - (2) Pariánwáli.

(3) Kádírabad.

There are outposts at Káthála and Pabbi: there is a cattlepound at each thána.

The District Jail at head-quarters contains accommodation for 228 prisoners. Long term prisoners are transferred to Central Jails. Table No. XL gives statistics of criminal trials, Table No. XLI of police enquiries, and Table No. XLII of convicts in jails. The original jail, which was situated near the Police lines, was washed away in a Bhimbar flood about twentyeight years ago; tho present jail is accommodated in an old sarái at the north-west corner of the town.

Table No. XXXVI gives the income and expenditure from District Funds, which are controlled by a Committee consisting of twenty-four members, with the Deputy Commissioner as President. Of the members ten are nominated, an equal number are elected, and four held their position ex-officio. In addition to the District Board there are Local Boards in each tabsil, having the Tahsíldár of the tahsíl, ex-officio President.

District Funds.

Pindi Kálu. Sadulapur. Khanáná. Ghaniá. Manjhi.

General.

The composition of these Local Boards is shown below:—

Gener	ral.
District :	Funds.

				Ex-officio	NUMBER OF MEMBERS.		
Name	or Lo	car Bo	ARDS.		Members.	Nominated.	Elected.
Gujrát	•••		•••		1	7	17
Khárián	•••	•••			1	7	17 ·
Phália	•••		•••		1	7	16

Revenue.

The gross revenue collections of the district for a term of years, so far as made by the Financial Commissioner, are shown in Table No. XXVIII; while Tables Nos. XXIX, XXV, XXXIV and XXXIII give further details for land revenue, excise, income tax and stamps, respectively. Table XXXI gives details of balances, remissions and agricultural advances, and Table XIV gives details of the area of the district.

Medical.

Table No. XXXVIII gives separate figures for each of the dispensaries of the district. They all are under the control of the Civil Surgeon, Gujrát. The out-station dispensaries, which take in no in-patents, are in charge of Hospital Assistants. The dispensary at Gujrát is in immediate charge of an Assistant Surgeon. It was opened in 1893 on the completion of the present building which had been erected at a cost of about Rs. 25,000. The old town dispensary was situated in a convenient position within the town, in buildings which had been confiscated during the mutiny. On the transfer of the hospital, the buildings were sold to the descendants of their former owner for a sum probably much below their real value.

Ecclesiastical.

There is a small but pretty Church at Gujrát, capable of seating twenty-four persons. No Chaplain is posted here, but the Chaplain at Jhelam visits the station once a quarter.

Education.

Tables XXXVII and XXXVIIA. give statistics for the schools of the district. There are two High Schools at Gujrát, and Middle Schools at Gujrát, Dingáh, Jalálpur and Kunjáh. The Primary Schools are situated at:—

Kunjáh.	Jaura Jálálpur.	Khárián.	Bhadar.
Jalálpur.	Kháriánwála.	Guliana.	Chakar.
Maghowál.	Perosháh.	Dhoria.	Kádirabád.
Thatha Músa.	Ghansia.	Khohar.	Jokalíán.
Shádiwál.	Dharowála:	Khari.	Mangat.
Hariáwála.	Daulatnagar.	Kakrúli	Mong.
Kathála	Killadár.	Jaura Karnánú.	Helán.
Shekhpur.	Chopála.	Sarai Aurang-	Haslánwála.
Ladha Sadha.	Bahlolpur.	abád.	Khiwá.
Lakhanwál.	Tánda.	Malka.	Phália.
Bhagowál.	Dingáh.	Lála Músa.	Ghugganwáli.
-			, ,

The district lies within the Ráwalpindi Circle, which forms the charge of the Inspector of Schools at Ráwalpindi.

Table No. XIII gives statistics of education collected at the census of 1891: the general state of education has already been described in Chapter III.

The Government School at Gujrát was one of the first estab. Gujrát High School. lished in the Panjab after the annexation, having been founded by Mr. Temple in 1854. It was at first a Vernacular School, and English was added to the curriculum in 1859-60. It is pleasantly situated in a shady and picturesque compound immediately outside the city to the north-west and in connection with the Civil Station. It is now called the District School, and contains three departments—High, Middle, and Primary. The Lower Primary School has been transferred to a separate building in the old fort, where the tabsil and municipal buildings are located. The school buildings are new ranges of structures with a quadrangle or courtyard. The site is considerably above the surrounding city, which makes the locality airy and suitable for the boarders whose quarters are here. The school is attended by boys of the city and district. The staff consists of a European Head Master and native Assistants. Nearly a moiety of the scholars are Muhammadans, and about one-third are agriculturists, not residents of the town.

That portion of the North-Western Railway which runs through the district is in charge of the Assistant District Traffic other departments. Superintendent at Jhelam, and the Traffic Superintendent, Ráwalpindi, controls the Traffic Department. The head office of the former is at Jhelam, and of the latter at Ráwalpindi. Grand Trunk Road south of Gujrát is under the Executive Engineer, Gujránwála Division, assisted by an Overseer stationed at Gujrat, who has charge of most of the public buildings of the district; and both are subordinate to the Superintending Engineer, 1st Circle, stationed at Ráwalpindi. The telegraph lines and offices are controlled by the Chief Superintendent stationed at Ambála, the Post office by the Inspecting Post Master, Ráwalpindi Division, and the forests are under the Deputy Conservator, whose head-quarters are at Gujránwála.

Chapter V, B. Land and Land Revenue.

Education.

Head-quarters of

SECTION B.-LAND AND LAND REVENUE.

The Sikh Government took all they could extract from the cultivator, relaxing in favour of the headmen, who assisted them in the process. To these they gave inams, or what comes to the same thing, they exempted a plough or two of their cultivation from assessment; and these headmen on their part managed the revenue for Government, and village affairs for the community generally; from the latter they collected malba to

The Sikh system.

illicit. They would manage the waste lands, call in cultivators,

defray the village expenses, perhaps something more, which was Chapter V, B.

Land and Land Revenue.

These men were thus raised considerably above the rest of the community in rank and influence. The almost universal The Sikh system. custom was to pay in grain, the Government portion being assessed by kankut, or batái. In later times, sometimes money leases would be given, or fixed money-rates on ploughs, or on the bigah, levied, but instances of this kind were exceptional, and rarely lasted any time. One-half was, according to the Muhammadan rule, the Government share. In the poorer villages onethird would be taken, but generally speaking the full half share would be made up by a larger number of extra charges. the bar and other places where the expenses of bringing the lands under the plough would be unusually great, one-fourth would be assessed as the Government share. When the Panjab Government came under the supervision

First Summary Settlement, 1846 A.D.

of British officers in 1846, Lieutenant Lake, Assistant Resident, made a summary money settlement of the greater part of the district. He based his assessment mainly upon the average of the payments of the three previous years. Second Summary Again, at annexation in 1849, a second summary settle-

Settlement, 1849 A. D.

ment was made by Mr. Melvill, Secretary to the Board of Admin-It was effected at Lahore, and with considerable istration. difficulty. The proprietors came forward unwillingly, and it was a success to have induced them to take up the leases at all. This settlement gave considerable reduction from the jamas fixed by Lieutenant Lake, but of course information was defective; all kinds of conflicting influences were brought into play, and it was soon found to be both too unequal, and in many instances too high to stand.

Revision of 1851-52 A.D.

Accordingly in 1851 a revision was attempted by the District Officer. It had not however made much progress, when it became evident that it would not be an improvement upon its. predecessors. It was therefore cancelled, and matters remained in statu quo until 1852. In that year the district was visited by Sir H. Lawrence, who commented with great severity upon the state of things brought to his notice. "There are," he writes: "inequalities in the assessment, as from one anna per bigah to two rupees, without any apparent reason or explanation. I visited several villages, the zamindars of which complained of overassessment, and their appearance bespeaks great poverty and utter inability to pay the revenue fixed upon them; whereas it is obvious that villages paying one, two, three, and four annas must in most cases be under-assessed, and render more hard to bear the burdens of their neighbours." In consequence of this exposure the Deputy Commissioner, Mr. Sapte, was instructed to revise the assessment without loss of time, and the work was accomplished in three months. This settlement proved a good one; it worked well until the regular settlement. It corrected

many, and left few inequalities. It gave a reduction of 5.85 per cent. and a rate upon cultivation of Re. 1-10-5. The real rate was however considerably below this, as Mr. Sapte excluded from his revenue-paying area a large amount of land nominally inám, but of which a great portion really bore taxation. When confirming this settlement, the Board, in their letter No. 3342 of 28th October 1852, expressed the opinion that it was "moderate and even light,—the rate certainly low."

Chapter V, B. Land and Land Revenue. Revision of 1851.52

A regular settlement was begun in 1852 by Mr. (now Sir Regular settlement, Richard) Temple, who was succeeded in 1854 by Mr. E. A. Prinsep, and in 1856 by Captain Mackenzie, whoreported the results The settlement was confirmed in 1860 for a term of ten years, to expire at the end of 1867-68. The assessment of each tahsil is briefly described below. The settlement came into force from the beginning of 1855-56 in Phália: of 1856-57 in Khárián, and from 1857-58 in Gujrát, and worked admirably till the revision of 1868 presently to be described.

1852-58 A. D.

The country was first divided into circles, comprising all Assessment circles contiguous villages, the lands of which were in their main characteristics similar. Thus bar lands formed one circle; lands lying on the bank of the rivers another; undulating or hilly lands a third; low-lying central land receiving yearly enrichment from the overflow of streams a fourth; level lands of a permanent character securing them from the vicissitudes of an uncertain climate a fifth; and so on. Except in one circle no other primary classification of villages or soils was made.

of regular settlement.

The Phália tahsíl was first assessed. It contains high land Regular settlement adjoining the bár sterile tracts highly impregnated with saltpetre, stiff clay, rich mould and light sandy soils by the river Chenáb. The soil is however generally hard and difficult to work, and requiring constant irrigation to render it productive. Cultivation is consequently carried on to a great extent by well irrigation. It is therefore expensive. There had been no increase in cultivation during the summary settlement. That settlement pressed at a rate of Re. 1-9-0 per acre. It was considered high, although reduced from the previous summary settlement 9 per cent. The population numbered only 162 per square mile. The people were mostly Jats of the Gondal, Tárar and Varaich tribes, industrious and good husbandmen. But five villages had completely broken down, five others were held khám, more were ready to break. Balances to the amount of 3 and 4 per cent. occurred yearly. Annual advances to the amount of several thousands of rupees were made for building wells, but were to a great extent expended in revenue payments. Upon these considerations taken together with the facts of scant population, deficiency of markets, and prevalence of crime, especially cattle-stealing, it was left that ten years' regular settlement to be successful must be light. Unless reductions were given to a very considerable extent, there would certainly

of tahsíl Phália.

Chapter V, B.

Land and Land
Revenue.

be no improvement, there might be distress. Eight per cent. reduction was ultimately conceded, giving a rate of Re. 1-2-2 on the cultivated area.

Regular settlement of Tabsíl Khárián.

The Khárián tahsíl was next assessed. It embraced a great variety of soils. The predominating feature however was the absence of well cultivation. The greater part of the tahsíl is unirrigated. The majority of the cultivators is composed of Gujars, with no taste for high farming. The absence of artificial irrigation however is partly owing to the nature of the soil, which is light and does not absolutely require irrigation, and also the great depth of water in most parts of the tahsíl. The location of the tribes may originally have been arranged from the same circumstance. There are the undulating lands to the north—the Pabbi with its high and dry and uneven slopes,—the plain cis-Pabbi, including high bár basin-like flood lands, and the river lands on the Jhelam.

Rája Guláb Singh's kárdárship.

In this tahsíl agricultural prosperity was of comparatively, recent date. It had been mainly brought about by Rája Guláb' Singh during his kárdárship between 1891 and 1903 Sambat. He brought about this prosperity with great sagacity and by a system of liberal terms. He gave chahárams very generally, i. e., the cultivators at the time of kankút were allowed to keep onefourth of their land out of the kan; three-fourths were assessed at least so nominally. It was probably a good deal a system of give and take, at any rate it pleased the people. He further dealt very lightly with green crops, in many cases exempting them altogether from being charged with revenue. He thus induced absentees to return to their old lands. He employed the better circumstanced landholders largely as chaudris or zaildárs, giving them increased powers and influence, and recompensating them by ináms. They are greater in number, and correspond in character more to the term yeomen in this tahsil than the chaudris of any other part of the district. Ho thus conciliated all classes, and is remembered with respect.

Tirni tax.

Land however remained, especially towards the south, greatly out of proportion to the capabilities, numbers and resources of the population. The bár people had their main stay principally in cattle, not in agriculture. The consequence was the establishment of tirni. This tax was in force for most of the time of Rája Guláb Singh's kardárship. This tax however was overlooked during our early assessments, and it was considered neither politic nor just to revive it. For our subsequent policy involved the appropriation as Government rakhs of all excessive waste, and of the remainder a considerable portion was being brought under the plough. At the regular settlement 36 per cent. of the total village area was found to be cultivated.

Fiscal condition.

The summary settlement of the tahsil was supposed to be generally fair. In some tracts it was indeed expected that the investigations would lead to an increase in the demand. The

Summary assessment rate on the existing cultivation was Re. 1-1-8. Reduction had been given to the extent of Rs. 5-8-0 per cent. at the last settlement. There was much improvable land. The people were rich in cattle. But on coming to assess it was found that an increase could not be taken. The tahsil was almost entirely bárnái. Seasons could not but be uncertain. Resources were only beginning to develop themselves. agricultural population only averaged 167 per square mile. quiry however proved one thing, that in half of the tahsil the people were in the habit of liquidating their debts and paying their revenue, &c., with the produce of their cattle. It was therefore thought proper to bring these into the calculations, and accordingly they were rated apart from the soil, and a cattle jama as well as a rate jama applied to each village. Eight per cent. reduction was ultimately given, and the rate on cultivation became Re. 1-0-3.

Chapter V, B. Land and Land Revenue. Fiscal condition.

Regular

Tahsil Gujrát was assessed last of all, with effect from 1857-58. It differs in most of its salient points from either ment of Tahsil of the tahsils previously noticed. Its soil upon the whole is Gujrát. inferior in its intrinsic qualities to that of tahsil Phália, but it is more easily worked, and it is superior to Khárián, while in population, industry and steady habits of the agricultural class, proximity of markets, &c., it ranks higher than both. contains the greater part of the Jatátar section, with a fine industrious, skilful population of agriculturists, most of whom had held to their lands through the vicissitudes which had laid waste less favoured localities, and who cultivated them with great care and industry. Sixty-two per cent. of its area was cultivated. The population numbered 350 per square mile. Of the cultivation 41 per cent. was either irrigated or naturally moist. The land is of a variety of qualities from light maira and stony ravines to rich chhamb. The summary settlement pressed at a rate of Re. 1-5-0 per acre. With exception to a few isolated instances, and the Gangwal taluka, it worked well. But in the previous year the other two tabsils of the district had been largely reduced. It was therefore decided to make greater endeavours to adjust inequalities, and proportion the pressure to the relative values of the different varieties of land assessed, than to enhance or even retain the existing revenue. Rája Dína Náth's daftar exhibited as near as could be gathered from a set of papers applying in many instances to different years, a demand Rs. 2,79,458. The summary settlement amounted to Rs. 2,47,912 on the *khólsa* villages. The revised result was Rs. 2,34,842, which gave a rate of Re. 1-3-3, and a reduction of 5.2 per cent.

The result of the assessment of the regular settlement is Abstract results of the regular settleshown below :ment.

14	48 CHAP	. √.—AD	MINIST	RATION	AND FI	NANCE.	
Chapter V. B. =	,	t on	Regul	ar Settl	EMENT.		Anna Anna Anna Anna Anna Anna Anna Anna
Revenue. Abstract results of the regular settlement.	Name of Circle.	Summary settloment khálsa villages.	Jágir.	Khülsa.	Total.	Rate on cultiva- tion.	Rate on total area.
Рнали.	Bhimbar Bet I Bet II Nakka Pakheri Hithár	21,832 12,794 12,306 17,090 30,465 12,712	2,125 549 150 1,930 1,550 2,250	19,285 11,820 11,001 15,496 25,502 11,700	21,450 12,369 19,151 17,426 27,052 13,950	R. a. p. 1 4 9 1 7 2 1 4 4 1 0 7 1 3 8 1 3 1	R. a. p. 0 10 8 0 7 1 0 7 2 0 3 3 0 8 10 0 5 11
•	Akiwála Maira	21,802 8,389 137,390	975 1,400 10,919	15,176 7,456 117,436	16,151 8,856 128,355	1 2 10	0 4 5 0 5 3
Кпапам.	Bulandi I Ditto II Ditto III Bhimbar Pabbi Hithár Pabbi Maira Bár Bet I	6,299 11,285 4,302 20,576 16,701 48,921 16,555 24,201 15,265 18,425	50 330 180 1,430 550 250 4,389 660 140	6,060 11,093 3,511 19,443 15,629 45,975 14,878 22,276 13,240 18,037	6,110 11,423 3,691 19,443 17,059 46,525 15,128 26,655 13,900 18,177	0 15 10 0 11 1 0 10 6 0 14 6 0 12 9 1 1 0 0 14 5 1 3 0 1 5 3	0 9 9 0 6 11 0 5 3 0 6 5 0 2 8 0 9 1 0 4 11 0 2 8 0 7 8 0 9 10
<u>.</u>	Total	182,531	7,279	170,144	177,423	1 0 5	0 5 5
č Guira.	Chhamb Bhimbar Niánda Jatátar Bet Danda Darya Bulandi Palláhi	28,484 5,455 24,030 55,814 35,603 13,133 49,744 35,650	2,490 2,362 265 2,162 2,900 66 1,840 860	26,490 6,273 20,728 56,642 29,309 12,121 49,162 34,117	28,980 8,633 20,993 58,804 32,209 12,187 51,002 34,977	2 0 4 1 3 2 1 11 8 1 5 11 1 10 8 1 5 0 0 14 11 0 12 0	1 9 4 0 11 11 1 4 8 0 14 8 0 13 11 0 8 0 0 9 9 0 8 1
	Total	247,912	12,943	234,842	247,785	1 3 2	0 12 2
	GRAND TOTAL	567,839	31,141	522,422	553,563	1 2 2	0 7 2

Captain Mackenzie thus discussed his assessments:—

Land and Land Revenue.

Chapter V. B.

"The reduction is doubtless considerable. Taken with the opinion of the Board of the Summary Settlement, quoted at the outset of this sketch, the present settlement must be held to be undonbtedly light. And moreover the real extent of relief given cannot he measured by the above figures, for they do not take into consideration the large amount of resumed lakhiraj now thrown into large reductions the assessed area. Its amount is not exactly ascertainable, because, although no given. minally very large, a great many claims and alleged holdings were fictitious, and the summary settlement rate was on this account much lower in reality than appeared to the Board, when they expressed their opinion that it was decidedly low. Still the amount of extra relief thus given was considerable, amounting to 7.6 per cent. on the summary settlement jama; and after a balance of fiction and fact, and allowing for the great increase in cultivation and decrease of exactions of all kinds, I am inclined to state the real diminution in the present payments of the general cultivator at 20 percent.

Remarks on the

"Opinion as to the expediency or inexpediency, necessity or otherwise, of so great a remission of taxation will vary. It will be observed that I have not, in argued. going through the chaklas, with one exception, laboured to prove distress or absolute necessity, or a large measure of relief; and with the patent facts of a revised summary settlement reduced from its predecessor, pronounced light, and not found to be in any vital point defective, collections apparently easy, balances almost nil, any difficulty that existed local and not general, the necessity for such liberal concessions will by some he doubtless called in question. But bearing in mind the transition state of society in the Punjab, its undeveloped resources, the absence of capital, low prices, the uncertainty of climate, the great want of home markets and of the means of export, the novelty of money demands, scarcity of cash, and the short term of the settlement, it may be donbted whether less indulgent terms would have had any other effect than to retard improvement

Their expediency

"The district may in a general view be called a fertile one: but fertility Productive capacity of soil nuder an uncertain climate is but a latent advantage until accompanied of the district. by capital and a strong population. These are yet wanting; thus the best land in the district is yet untilled, viz., the bar: cleared and watered, these lands would yield a far greater return than perhaps any other land in the district. But a well costs from Rs. 200 to 300 if huilt by the labour of the agriculturist and his family. Few have the requisite capital. The closest attention on the part of the Tahsildar and District Officer is necessary to keep existing wells in those high tracts in working order, and at present the required population does not exist. Besides this I am inclined to think that the fertility of the district has been overrated. One half of the cultivated area is composed of the poorer varieties of soils, while the productive capability of 72 per cent of the whole is entirely dependent upon the periodical rains. While therefore taken as a whole this district doubtless must, in point of fertility, be considered superior to Jhelam, Rawalpindi or indeed most of the southern districts of the Panjab, it cannot I imagine he reckoned in any way equal to the Jallandar Doab or even Gurdáspur or Siálkot. For as regards intrinsic quality of soil, this district can hardly he called in a high degree fertile, and in its productive capabilities, as regards population, capital and general resources, it must rank considerably helow our hest and most revenue-yielding districts.

"I can attest the improvement that has resulted from these light terms. Satisfactory results I think I may say that the agricultural community is imbned with a of the assessment. spirit of contentment, a feeling that justice has been done to them, that they have received more beneficient consideration than they ever received ander former Governments, and that their prosperity is ensured. Cultivation has increased, new wells have been snnk, old debts have been paid, ornaments redeemed, and marriages solemnized. It may be that higher terms might have been demanded with perfect theoretical justice, and the same results therefore expected; but the Cottar proprietors of the Panjab are not hearetical responses. A full programs of includers their sources their approach. heoretical reasoners. A full measure of indulgence best secures their appreciation; moderation is the best side to err upon; and if prosperity he the result, the settlement which created it may perhaps always claim to be approved."

In 1865 Colonel Waterfield was directed to revise the The revision of his settlement, 1868. regular settlement, and he completed and reported

Chapter V, B.

Land and Land
Revenue.

The revision of settlement, 1868.

operations in 1868. The new assessments were announced in June and July 1867 for Gujrát, in December 1867 for Phália, and in January 1868 for Khárián. The same assessment circles were adopted as had been followed in the regular settlement. The revenue rates framed at each settlement are shown in detail for each assessment circle at pages 130 to 133 of Colonel Waterfield's Report. It was found that the cultivated area had increased by 105,795 acres, the number of ploughs by 23,028, and the total number of wells by 550, since the settlement of 1858, the actual number of new wells built being 929.

Asssesment irrigated land.

In the settlement of 1868 the old system of assessing irrigated like all other lands by a fixed rate per acre was abandoned; the land being assessed throughout as if unirrigated and a lump sum being imposed upon each well to represent the additional demand upon irrigation. Colonel Waterfield thus describes the manner in which the new system was received by the people:-"In the Gujrát tahsíl it had always been the custom to distribute the revenue demand upon all the land by an equal rate, not drawing any distinction between the kinds of soil, between irrigated and unirrigated lands; the proportion of each description of land in the holding of each proprietor being about equal. At first a heavier water-tax was put upon each well, and a lighter rate upon the land; this met with opposition from the people represented as they were by the richer and more well-possessing portion of the community. They maintained that wells in the Gujrát tahsíl were of no great utility, that they were merely an aid in case of dry seasons. The lowering of the water-rate and raising of that upon the land satisfied them, and there was a good deal of justice in what they said. The staple produce of the land is wheat, which covers 45 per cent. of the cultivated area, and its cultivation is increasing owing to the high prices which have prevailed. In ordinary seasons, with an average fall of rain, no doubt it grows quite as luxuriantly in land altogether ignorant of wells; so much of the land of this tahsil receives moisture from hill torrents. In the Phália tahsíl the water-rate was favourably received; their cultivation is dependent upon wells, the rainfall being less and the soil drier and harder. The Khárián tahsil is not much affected by it; wells being so few, the water-rate was not objected to. A good proof of the applicability of the water-rate lies in the fact that, although it was left optional with the community to distribute the total of the water-rate as they might prefer upon wells or land or shares, with reference to the condition of the wells and the value they really placed upon them, they almost invariably adhered to the new system."

Results of assessment.

The following table shows the result of the new assessments, which gave an immediate increase of Rs. 32,243 or 5.79 per cent.; the rate per cultivated acre being Rs. 0-15-5:—

CHAP. V.—ADMINISTRATION AND FINANCE.

Comparative Assessment.

Chapter V, B.

Land and Land Revenue.

Results of assessment.

		•			PRESEN	T Asses	SMENT.		
			settle-			ne rate		Now a	ssessed.
Тапеть.	Assessment Circle	ē.	Jama of last so ment.	Plough jama.	Former rate on present area.	Present.	Produce estimate.	Initial demand.	Final demand.
	Chhamb		30,592	23,166	30,967	27,276	25,765	29,553	29,977
	Niánda		21,023	17,100	21,779	20,377		20,484	21,121
	Bet		31,868	26,514	30,631	31,400	33,369	30,409	31,302
	Jatátar	•••	63,280	57,575	75,746	70,384		65,067	68,237
G вуват.	Bhimbar	•••	24,440	22,860	32,470	25,831	27,17	25,584	27,309
Gu	Danda Dárya		11,525	12,224	11,994	11,447	12,370	12,095	12,215
	Bulándí		51,632	54,512	54,161	56,695	61,74:	53,409	56,122
	Paláhi		34,752		38,854	40,967	46,513	35,616	37,946
	Total		269,112	253,249	296,602	284,377	298,506	272,206	284,229
	Bet Thelam		12,868	19,227	12,129	13,447	14,545	12,100	12,379
	Hithár Pabbi		47,576	58,408	47,228	50,788	59,614	50,475	52,370
	Maira		25,456	48,160	28,069	32,789	39,646	30,120	34,025
Кнапган.	Bhimbar		19,059	24,744	20,852	21,469	26 649	21,036	21,346
шүн	Pár Pabbi		11,286	15,036	14,911	15,175	19,351	12,640	13,490
M	Bulándi	***	21,923	27,993	24,530	24,701	29,375	24,274	24,785
	Urár Pabbi	•••	6,512	8,052	7,998	7,279	9,188	6,667	7,200
•	Total		144,680	201,620	155,727	165,648	198,368	157,327	165,595
	Bet,Jhelam		19,192	21,810	24,160	22,941	23,799	20,507	21,712
	Bet 1st, Jokálián	•••	12,622	14,544	19,074	14,196	14,801	13,145	14,320
	Bet 2nd, Kadirabad	•••	10,318	11,210	14,011	10,318	12,517	10,894	11,349
	Pakheri		23,926	31,056	40,343	23,926	33,549	26,027	29,689
ALIA.	Bhimbar	•••	5,409	6,450	10,844	5,608	6,950	-5,782	6,475
PHA	Hithár	•••	13,907	16,542	23,762	16,86 8	19,792	15,575	17,439
	Nakka	•••	16,226	22,110	24,054	16,226	27,272	19,533	21,899
	Bár	•••	25,266	30,348	28,555	25,266	35,097	29,316	33,047
	Akiwála		16,188	22,131	34,427	21,235	31,4 82	18,536	22,295
	Total		143,053	176,201	219,330	167,017	205,259	159,555	178,222
	GRAND TOTAL		556,845	631,070	671,609	617,042	702,133	589,088	628,046

Chapter V, B.

Land and Land Revenue.

Currency of settlement.

The revised settlements came into force from the expiry of the term of regular settlement (end of 1867-68). Government was of opinion that the assessment was far lower than it should have been; and that it sacrificed public revenue unnecessarily; and it at first refused to sanction the demands for a longer period than 10 years. But it was afterwards ascertained that the assessment had been announced for 20 years, and sanction was therefore extended to that period. The areas upon which the revenue is now collected are shown in Table No. XIV, while Table No. XXIX shows the actual revenue for the last 14 years. The statistics given in the following tables throw some light upon the working of the settlement:—Table No. XXXI—Balances, remissions, and takávi advances. Table No. XXXII—Sales and mortgages of land. Table Nos. XXXIII and XXXIIIA—Registration.

Second revision, 1893.

In 1889 Captain Davies was directed to make a re-assessment of the district and the work was completed in 1893. The new assessment in Tahsil Gujrát took effect from Kharif 1891; in Tahsil Phália from Kharif 1892, and in Tahsil Khárián from Rabi 1893. The orders at first issued were that no revision of records should take place, and that remeasurements should be made in as few villages as possible. Later orders in 1892 directed that in addition to re-assessment a revision of the records should also be made.

Rates and assessment circles.

Assessment circles were in all tabsils made as large as possible, but no radical alteration of circles was made, the new circles were formed by amalgamation of several entire old circles. The statement below shows the changes made in assessment circles:—

Tahsíl.	Former na	me of ci	rele.	Number of villages.	New name of	circle.	Number of villages.
Gознат.	Chamb Niánda Bet Chenáb Jatátar Bhimbar Danda Darya Bulandi Paláhi			29 40 51 109 56 30 145 93	} Hithár } Jatátar } Bulandi		121 165 272

		 	{	<u></u>		
Tahsíl.	Former name of	circle.	Number of villages.	New name of c	ircle.	Number of villages.
	Ret Jhelum	3.	38	Bet Jhelum		38
	Bár Nakka		74 39	} Bár		113
Рнабіа.	Pakheri Hithár Bhimbar Akiwála		43 32 11 49	Hithár	··· '	135
	Bet Chenáb I Do. II		22 26	Bet Chenáb	•••	53
	Bet Jhelum	,	46	Bet Jhelum		46
IAN.	Urár Pabbi Pár Pabbi		3 1 64	} Pabbi	•••	98
KHARIAN,	Bulandi Hithár Pabbi Maira Bhimbar		8± 148 90 76	Maira	1+1	399

Chapter V, B.

Land and Land
Revenue.

Rates and assessment circles.

The rates sanctioned for assessment circles at the second revision of settlement are shown below:—

			Revenu	E RATES SANC	TIONED.
Tabsíl.	Circle	•	Cháhi.	Sailáb.	Báráni.
GUJRAT.	Hithár Jatátar Bulandi		Rs. a. p. 2 8 0 1 15 0 1 14 0	Rs. a p. 1 10 0 1 4 0 1 4 0	Rs. a. p. 1 4 0 0 15 0 0 14 0
KHA- BIAN.	Bet Jhelum Pabbi Maira		2 4 0 2 0 0 1 8 0	1 10 0	0 13 0 0 11 6 0 13 6
PHALIA.	Bet Jhelum Bár Hithár Bet Chenáb		2 0 0 1 2 0 1 5 0 1 8 0	1 10 0 1 2 0	0 10 0 0 9 0 0 8 0 0 8 0

The estimates prepared and comparative assessment is Assessment shown in the statement below.

	154	СН	AP. V	-ADM	INIS	STRATIC	ON AND	FINAN	CE.	,
Chapter V, B.						\$ "	F	GURES TO	e revis	ion.
Land and Land Revenue. Assessment.	Tabsil.		Circle.			Jama of year previous revision,	Juma by produce esti- mate.	Jama by rates of revised settlement.	Jama by sanctioned rates.	Gross as sossment announced.
	Guinar,	Hithár Jatátsir Bulandi		•••	•••	Rs. 81,378 1,00,763 1,10,477	Rs. 1,80,087 1,96,700 2,19,322	Rs. 84,737 1,16,313 1,25,911	Rs. 96,4 1,27,3 1,34,4	46 99,006 89 1,30,525
		То	tal Tahsil	•••		2,02,618	5,96,100	3,26,991	3,58,2	3,65,192
	Килиля.	Bet Jhelum Pabbi Maira	*** ***		:::	16,563 21,288 1,36,732	31,368 53,136 2,23,149	21,138 31,572 1,67,280	22,5 34,4 1,68,8	74 34,065
			Total I	ahsíi		1,74,583	3,10,653	2,22,990	2,25,9	15 2,37,319
`	Рилли.	Bet Jhelum Bár Hìthár Bet Chenáb		•••	 	22,212 55,716 77,735 20,508	40,339 99,806 1,22,384 50,709	32,675 91,553 1,02,778 27,727	32,8 78,6 1,10,1 36,0	10 81,040 13 1,11,575
			Total I	'ābsíl		1,85,171	3,13,238	2,51,763	2,57,60	2,62,850
,			Total Di	strict	•••	6,52,372	12,20,000	8,01,741	8,41,70	8,65,391
	-	The detai	ls of th	e ne	v as	ssessme	nt are	shown	below	•
	thaft.		Circle.			ssigned evenue,	Khálsa revenu	1	tal	Deferred revenue.

		Total Tâbsi	a	1,85,171	3,13,238	2,51,763	2,57,607	2,62,850
•		Total Distric	t	6,52,372	12,20,000	8,01,741	8,41,760	8,65,391
•		The details of the n	iew a	ssessme	nt are s	hown	below.	
	Tabsíl.	Circle.		evenue,	Khálsa revenue	1		Deferred revenue.
•	Grurat.	Hithár Jatátar Bulavdi		Rs. 8,070 10,043 5,297	Rs. 89,53 1,11,47 1,28,91	2 9' 9 1,2' 9 1,3'	7,602 8,522 4,216	Rs. 1,404 2,003 1,445
	 -	Total		23,410	3,36,93	0 3,6	0,340	4,852 ———
	Kitarian.	Bct Jhelum Pabbi Maira		1,371 4.400 8,577	21,92 26,89 1,69,71	0 3	3,291 1,290 8,288	2,775 1,609
		Total	•••	14,348	2,18,52	1 2,3	2,869	4,480
	PRABIA.	Bot Jhelum Bår Hithår Bet Chenåb		1,529 16,316 7,309 1,358	30,87 62,98 1,02,49 35,54	1 79 8 1,09 9 30	2,402 9,297 9,807 6,907	399 1,550 1,468 307
		Total District	-	20,512 64,270	2,31,90		8,413	$\frac{3,724}{13,056}$
	==	TOTAL DISTREE	<u>" </u>	0 4 ,270	7,87,35	2 0,0.	1,622	10,000
_								

The total revenue shown in the above statement represents the actual assessed revenue of the first year of the new assessment. The deferred revenue represents revenue, the collection of which is deferred on account of protective leases, and revenue the collection of which is deferred for a term of years. Under the latter head is entered a sum of Rs. 2,960 in the Pabbi circle, which will only commence to be collected from the kharif harvest of 1897. To the khálsa revenue stated above must be added a sum of Rs. 1,591 which is paid to Government, as nazarána, by jágírdárs out of the revenues of their jágírs.

Chapter V, B.

Land and Land Revenue.

Assessment.

At the regular settlement 42,820 acres of muáfi and inám lands representing a revenue of Rs. 20,162 held by 3,335 revenue assign individuals, were resumed. Captain Mackenzie thus discusses ments at regular the policy of the resumptions. the policy of the resumptions:—

Treatment

"It will be seen that I have placed all free tenures under two broad distinctions of much and inams; the former comprised for the most part dharmarths and religious grants for the support of maspids, shrines, tombs, &c. Educational or village service grants were few. I think I may state the mode of treatment to have been as follows:—Bona fide mudfis were upheld for life nnless tho incumbent's possession was of very late date, say since British rule. Inams and chahárams were resumed and curtailed, consideration being bad only to the necessities, from their previous habits, of the holders. The lambardári allowance compensated to some extent for these resumptions.

Its effects.

"The effect of this treatment, which was on the side of severity, is not yet fully developed. It might, I am inclined to think, have been beneficially moro lenient. There will be some room for this hereafter (as regards the grants upheld) as they lapse; the inimidate have suffered most. At the time of investigation, the nature of the inam was not, I think, fully apprehended. I was myself too much inclined to consider it in the light of a málguzár's profits alone. I have since seen that it was more properly only a part of a considerable margin left to the village manager, or chaudhri of the ilaqa, of which malba and other items, which we term illicit gains, formed a considerable portion also. The demeanour of the inamdars at the time of enquiry did not tend to correct this partial view. They saw a general investigation in progress, having for its principle resumption. They silently acquiesced, not doubting that their illicit gains would be still obtainable. Subsequently, when too late, they were undegains would be still obtainable. Subsequently, when too late, they were undeceived by the exactness of the jamabandi, grounded npon the precise khewat paper, precluding such exactions. The dissatisfaction is not so great as might have been expected; but I think the resumptions might, with greater policy, have been more sparing, especially in the cases of the chaudhris. The religious grants consist in the grant of small plots, the produce of which was assigned for the maintenance of the masjid, ulma, or mujawar. I think these have been well resumed. If the zamindars take interest in their religion, it is easy for them to place a portion of land as a support to their masjid, kharij bach."

Zaildár's and chief

To the above remarks Captain Mackenzie eventually added a note to the effect that he had again examined the matter, headmen's granted to the effect that he had again examined the matter, headmen's granted to the effect that he had again examined the matter, headmen's granted to the control of the matter, and allowances. and was inclined to think that the old holders of the resumed ináms "had not as a body any reasonable ground of complaint;" but he submitted for consideration a list of those cases in which he thought the resumptions had worked hardship. No action, however, was taken on these recommendations till the revised settlement, when zaildárs were appointed. The grants first made to these men, the faults of the system, and the manner in which they were rectified, will appear from the following extracts from proceedings dated 1868:-

"The zaildárs themsolves and head lambardárs received a certain amount of culturable waste land as indm within their own villages, and this amount was Chapter V, B.

Land and Land
Revenue.

Zaildárs and chief headmen's grants and allowances.

regulated entirely by the cultivated area of that particular village (be it large or small), as they received about two acres for every 100 acres under cultivation. This system, though it work with tolerable fairness among the large number of head lambardars appointed (as each receives an inam proportionate to the size of the village and the amount of his responsibility), yet led to great inequality in the remuneration of the zaildars or chaudhris, and was not at all in proportion to their grants position or rank with reference to each other. Where villages have large calturable areas, it was possible to rectify this, and, by increasing the grant from waste lands, to bring the holders into their proper position with reference to each other. But there are several villages (in the Gujrat tabsil more especially) where no culturable waste area at all exists; and here the cultivated area, according to the scale laid down, was very often, in small villages, quite insufficient. It was proposed, therefore, to form the zaildars into three classes, and to bring them as nearly as possible upon terms of equality. In those villages where there is no culturable area, the amount of cultivated area that they receive as liead lambardars of their villages was deducted, and an average income was made up to them, by allowing them to hold a certain proportion of their own personal cultivation at half jama rates. This can be resumed on the death of the original grantee, or continued to the successor in his own holding, as Government may think fit, with reference to his claims alone."

This was duly carried out; and in 1,452 cases, 11,618 acres were given in inám for village service to zaildárs and head lambardárs. In addition to this, 1,737 acres of land were granted to individuals at half jama rates, the Government demand sacrificed being Rs. 785. The principle on which these grants have been dealt with at the second revision of settlement has already been noticed in Chapter III D.

Revenue assignments in 1868.

The following table shows the revenue assignments as they stood at the revision of settlement of 1868:—

		~													
	1	Perpeti	ual.		For gene tion	ra.]	For lif	е.		will	g the of ment.		Total	•
Detail of revenuo as- signments,	No. of grants.	Acres.	Government demand.	No. of grants.	Acres.	Govornment demand.	No. of grants.	Acres.	Government demand.	No. of grants.	Acres.	Government demand.	No. of grants.	Acres.	Government domand.
In behalf of Muhamma dan institu- tions	139	1,095	1,217]]				,			***		139	1,095	1,217
In behalf of Sikh institutions	3	17	17] 					3	17	17
In behalf of Hindu in- stitutions	13	298	667							•••			13	208	687
In aid of charity			•••	5	132	138	1,667	11,137	12,097	•••	•••		1,672	11,209	12,235
For village service	•••	•••			•••		1,579	14,953	9,980	328	779	1,058	1,907	15,732	11,038
Total	155	1,400	1,901	5	132	138	3,246	26,090	22,077	328	779	1,058	3,734	28,401	25,174

The amount of assigned revenue for the last year of revised settlement and for the first years of the second revision is for tahsils in rupees—

Chapter V, B. Land and Land Revenue.

	 						Tre venue.
					Last year.	First year of second revision.	Comparison of old and new revenuo assignments.
Gujrát Khárián Phália	 				18,763 9,239 18,157	23,410 14,348 26,512	
	•	Total	•••	•••	46,159	64,270	•

The figures for the last year do not in reality show to the full extent the rent-free tenures; much land was granted in inám at time of Settlement, 1868, which was waste and consequently inassessed, much of it has been brought under cultivation, and has come under assessment in the new settlement. Another reason for the large increase in assigned revenue is that formerly the zaildari percentage at 1 per cent. was shown as a cess in addition to land revenue, it is now included in the above figures, as a deduction, or as an assignment of revenue. The detail of revenue assignment according to the new settlement is given below-

•	Та	hsíl.			Jágír and muáfi,	Ináms.	Zaildári allowance.	Other assign- ments.	Total.
Gujrát					Rs. 16,264	Rs. 3,384	Rs. 3,619	Rs. 143	Rs. 23,410
Phália	•••	•••	•••		21,879	2,014	2,569	20	26,512
Khárián	•••	•••	•••	•••	9,874	2,039	2,323	112	14,348
	7	otal [•••		48,017	7,467	8,511	275	61,270

Under the head of inams are entered the grants to ala lambardárs: the zaildári allowance is the remuneration of zaildárs at 1 per cent.: other assignments include cases in which the original grant has been resumed, and a jama at half rates given for the life of the heir of the original grantee.

The detail of the jagir and muáfi assignments are-

	Та	bsíl.		_	•	In perpetuity.		term or	During pleasure of Government.	For life.	Total	
Gujrát Phália Khárián			110 110 111				Rs. 2,128 17,801 6,361	Rs. 4,089 348 378	Rs. 1,567 121 292	Rs. 2,295 1,313 1,296	Rs. 6,185 2,296 1,547	Rs. 16,264 21,879 9,874
		Total	t	***		***	26,290	4,815	1,980	4,904	10,028	48,017

Chapter V, B. Land and Land Revenue.

Revenue instal-

The dates fixed for the payment of Government revenue are for the whole district, rabi instalment on the 20th June: kharif first instalment on the 15th December; kharif second instalment on the 15th February. Half the kharif demand is paid at the first instalment, and half at the second. These dates are the dates on which the revenue should be paid into the talisils: collections should commence at least a month before in ordinary years to ensure their completion at the proper time; the dates are not fixed, as so many Tahsildars seem to think, as the time from which collections should begin. In the greater part of Guirát and in the Hithar and Bet villages of Phália and Kharian. three-fifths of the demand is paid in rabi and two-fifths in kháríf: in báráni villages equal portions of the demand is generally paid in kharif and rabi. The amount of khálsa revenue due at each instalment is shown below-

						Rabi.	Kua	RIF.
		TAF	isil.			Instalment.	First instal- ment.	Second in- stalment.
				 ,		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Gnjrát	•••	•••	111	•••	٠,,,	1,87,180	74,973	74,978
Khárián		•••	***	***		1,11,113	53,977	53,970
Phália	***	•••	•••	***	•••	1,26,848	152,955	52,949
				Total	•••	4,25,141	1,81,905	1,81,897

Cesses.

The cesses which existed at regular settlement were-

		T	otal	•••	***	10	0	0
Education	•••	•••	•••	***	•••	1	0	0
Road	•••	***	•••	•••	•••	1	0	0
Patwári		•••	•••	•••	•••	3	0	0
Lambardári		•••	,	•••	•••	5	0	0
						\mathbf{R}	s. a	. p.
						Pe	r co	nt.

At revised settlement the existing cesses were-

.e	Albert Score	emene	611	G GAIS	Bum	CCSSCS	110	1 C -		
							Per	cc:	nt.	
							Rs	. a.	p.	
	Road Fund	•••	•••	***	***	***	1	, 0	0	
	School Fund	l.		1.1	• • •	***	1	0	0	,
	Hakím's Fu	nd .		•••	•••	•••	1	0	0	
	Sarpanchi			• • • •	•••		. 1	0	0	
	Zaildári	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •		•••	• • •		1	0	0	
	Lambardári				•••		5	0	0	
	Patwári	•••	•••	•••	5,111	•••	4.	12	0	
				Total	***	111	14,	12	0	
				•	٠.					*

There had thus been an increase of 4.75 per cent. in the 10 years between the two settlements. At commencement of settlement operations the existing cesses were found to be—

Chapter V, B.

Land and Land
Revenue.

Cesses.

Patwári Lambardári	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	5	12 0	0	
Sarpanchi			•••	•••	•••	1	ŏ	Ö	
Zaildári	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	1	0	0	
		7	Total	•••	.,.	22	2	8	

Cesses had therefore increased nearly 8 per cent. since the last settlement, and over 12 per cent. since the settlement of 1858. During the second revision the zaildári cess was abolished and the patwári cess reduced to Rs. 4-11-0 per cent., leaving the total cesses at Rs. 21-1-8 per cent. on the land revenue. The total demand of cesses and of land revenue for the first year of the new settlement is—

		Tah	síl.		Land- revenue.	Cesses.	Total.	
Gujrát	•••		···		 Rs. 3,60,340	Rs. 88,239	Rs. 4,48,579	
Phália		•••	•••	•••	 2,58,413	63,083	3,21,496	
Khárián		•••		•••	 2,32,869	58,580	2,91,449	
				lotal	 8,51,622	2,09,902	10,61,522	

In the previous detail of cesses no mention has been made of malba which is included in the figures given above. This is a cess which varies according to the revenue of the village from 2 to 5 per cent., and is fixed under rules entered in Revenue Circulars.

The new assessment of the second revision of settlement Term took effect in Gujrát tahsíl from Kharíf 1891, in Tahsíl Phália from ment. Kharíf 1892, and in Tahsíl Khárián from Rubi 1893. Recommendation has been made for sanction to the term of settlement for 20 years.

Term of Settlement.

CHAPTER VI.

TOWNS AND MUNICIPALITIES.

Chapter VI.

Towns and
Municipalities.
General statistics
of towns.

At the census of 1891 all places possessing more than 5,000 inhabitants, all municipalities, and all head-quarters of districts and military posts were classed as towns. Under this rule, the following places were returned as the towns of the Gujrát District:—

Tahsí	l.		Town	ì.		Persons.	Males.	Females.
-								
Gujrat	ς	Gujrát	•••	***	•••	18,050	9,340	8,710
GURAT	{	Jalálpur	•••	•••		11,065	5,665	5,400
77	ſ	Kunjah	•••	•••	•••	5,474	2,733	2,741
KHARIAN	··· {	Dingah	•••	•••	•••	5,424	2,864	2,560

The distribution by religion of the population of these towns and the number of houses in each are shown in Table No. XLIII; the remainder of this chapter consists of a detailed description of each town, with a brief notice of its history: the increase and decrease of its population: its commerce, manufactures, municipal government, institutions and public buildings; and statistics of births and deaths, trades and manufactures, wherever figures are available.

Gujrát town. Description.

The town of Gujrát lies in north latitude 32° 35' and east longitude 74° 7′, and it contains a population of 18,050 souls. It is situated about five miles fom the present bed of the river Chenáb. The town slopes gently upwards towards the fort, the remains of which form its highest point. The country round is wooded, and some fruit and flower gardens exist near the town; there are some high houses and a few minarets appearing through and above the trees, making the approach agreeable. The suburbs stretch out in every direction save towards the west; Garhi Shahdaula is the largest. To the north, about a mile from the town, lie the civil lines and principal public offices. The Tahsil and Munsiff's Courts are situated in the fort, in native fashioned buildings. The town is traversed by three main streets running respectively from east to west, from north-west to east, and from north to south. The last is a fine open street called the Nawa Bázár passing throughout the eastern quarter. This bazar opens out into

a commodious market place opposite the eastern entrance to the fort, and in this is situated the octroi office. The majority of the houses of the town are of fairly solid build, but most of the streets with the above exception are very narrow and very irregular, as usual in native cities. They are however well Description. paved; and the drainage and the sanitary arrangements are very good, being greatly facilitated by the elevated position of the town and the ample water-supply which is obtained from wells in the town. The principal buildings of antiquarian or architectural interest within the town, are the Imperial bath-house known as hamám, constructed by the Emperor Akbar; the Imperial well with steps known as the báoli; the shrine of Sháhdaula Sáhib in the Garhi Sháhdaula; and the old Muhammadan cemetery at Begampura, which contains an old tomb, where a lady of rank was buried in A.H. 1122. Close by there is an old mosque.

In the centre of the town lies the fort, which was built by Akbar, and brick walls of which are 20 to 30 feet in height. It has two entrances on the east and west faces, and would have been a formidable obstacle to an unscientific enemy unprovided with artillery; dwellings have been extensively erected both on its ramparts and close underneath its walls, which are a source of anxiety to the District authorities, as portions of them often fall after heavy rains. The ruins of a brick viaduct which passes from the Garhi Shahdaula to the east and north of the city for a distance of half a mile, are attributed to the famous saint Sháhdaula (see below). The viaduct is said to have been devised to secure dry footing at this part of the city environs, during floods of the Bhimbar and Shahdaula nalás.

The portion of the work which forms the bridge of arches over the Sháhdaula nala, still in a good state of preservation, and of solid construction, is a work of great benefit to the community. He is also said to have constructed useful works in Siálkot, and several wells on the Lahore and Gujrát roadside. Sháhdaula was a Pathán and claimed descent from the Emperor Bahlol Sháh Lodi; at the same time the Gujars assert that he belonged to their class, and the present high priest at the shrine professes to be a Saiyad. At this khángah are domiciled human deformities known as Sháhdaula's chúhás (rats). The popular belief is that the priest undertakes to cause children to be born in childless homes on condition of the parents consenting at the shrine to relinquish to him their first-born child, which is then said to be born rat-headed. There are at present about a dozen rat-headed men, women and children attached to the khángah; they are wretched looking imbeciles, with little or no forehead, and sharp features, which in a manner justifies the appellation of "rat-head." They are very shy and most of them are mute; some are said to have been brought from great distances-Kashmír, Kábul, Mooltan, Lahore, Amritsar, &c. The fact is simply that such deformed

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children are occasionally born, and that the Sháhdaula priests lose no opportunity of acquiring them, as they are found to be profitable in marking the identity of a priest or disciple of the celebrated Sháhdaula shrine in his alms-collecting rounds among his distant constituents, each disciple being usually accompanied on his tours by a rat-faced deformity; and the fostering of superstitious stories regarding these unfortunates tends to increase the reverence and liberality shown to the Sháhdaula priesthood. There is strong reason to fear that some of them are helped into idiocy by superstitious parents compressing their heads in infancy between boards or bandages in order to fit them for this shrine, as chúhás; but of course no body will admit this, and they are commonly reputed to be born thus as a mark of divine wrath on parents who have wilfully failed to keep a vow of one sort or another.

The shrine of Sháhdaula situate to the north of the city, is known and revered throughout the Punjab, and lends its name to the city, which is known as "Gujrát Sháhdaulawála." The people have a legend that the old saint Sháhdaula, having for some reason taken a dislike to orchards, uttered a great curse on the district that it never should produce fruit trees; and in consequence of this curse it is that no orchards are anywhere to be seen, and even the mango cannot grow. They admit however that the curse is now being evaded or disregarded more and more. The civil station is picturesque, being prettily wooded, and with a good view of the Adhi Dhák and Pír Panjál ranges of hills. There are attractive public gardens, a swimming bath, and a fine open piece of land where the annual horse show is held, and where the school boys play cricket.

History.

The stories preserved by tradition concerning the early history of the town of Gujrát have been briefly recorded in Chapter II. It is certain that the site shows traces of early occupation; and, if any weight is to be attributed to tradition, two cities had been built and fallen to decay upon it, before the foundation of the present town. The second city, restored according to General Cunningham by one Ali Khán, is said upon the same authority to have been destroyed in A.D. 1303, a year which was signalized by an invasion of Moghals during the reign at Dehli of Ala-ud-din Khilji; and Bahlol Lodi moved the seat of Government to the town of Bahlolpur which he founded (A.D. 1540) on the Chenáb, 23 miles north-east of Gujrát. Nearly 100 years later, the attention first of Sher Shah during his brief reign, and subsequently of Akbar, was devoted for a time to the affairs of the Chaj Doab, the result being the foundation of the present town of Guirát. It is not certain, though Captain Mackenzie appears to think it probable, that Sher Shah had any hand in this matter. Akbar's part is the subject of a very definite tradition. In those days, as pointed out by Captain Mackenzie, there was no stronghold in the Chaj Doab to mark the imperial power: and seeking a locality for

a fort. Akbar was probably attracted to the present site by the traces of ancient occupation, and perhaps by the existence of ruins from which material could be extracted on the spot. Working skilfully upon the hereditary rivalry between the Jats and Gujars of the neighbourhood, he induced the latter to furnish half the necessary funds, permitting them in return to hold for him the citadel when finished, although the surrounding territory belonged to the Jats. Captain Mackenzie says:-"The story goes on to say that according to the old Asiatic "principle of 'nímak az sirkár, arad az bázár,' the Emperor pro-"posed that the inhabitants of the country should bear half the "expense. But the Jats, in whose section of the Doab it was "situated, objected, and the Emperor was obliged to turn for "assistance to the Gujars, who inhabited the neighbouring coun-"try to the west. The sum required was 14 lakh, but the idea "of having a Gujar fort in the country of the Jats was so tempt-"ing that the Gujars agreed to raise the money."

The fort thus founded took the joint name Gujrát Akbarábad. Its outline is now hardly traceable, the fortifications having been renewed upon a larger scale by Sardár Gujar Singh. Some of the imperial buildings, however, especially a báoli or covered well, and a bath-house (hamám), still exist and are in use. During the reign of Shah Jahán, Gujrát became the residence of Pír Shahdaula, a saint of great repute, who, from the rich offerings made to him, is said to have spent freely upon the adornment of the town and its suburbs (see above). The ruins of a brick viaduct extending to the north and north-east of the city, are still pointed to as a testimony to his liberality.

During the long years which saw the decay of the Moghal power, the district was overrun by the Ghakkars of Ráwalpindi, who probably established themselves at Gujrát in 1741. The country also suffered at the same time from the ravages of Ahmad Shah Duráni, while about this period the Sikh power had been asserting itself in the Eastern Punjab. In 1765, Sardár Gujar Singh, head of the Bhangi misl, crossed the River Chenáb and defeated the Ghakkar chief and extended his dominions to the banks of the Jhelum. In 1846, Gujrát came under the supervision of the British officials, and a settlement was made under orders of the Provisional Government at Lahore. Two years later this district became the theatre for the series of important battles which decided the event of the second Sikh war. battle was fought at Sadullapur, 16 miles off, between the British forces and Sher Singh's Sikh army, after which the Sikh General retired northward between the Jhelum and the Pabbi hills, and at Chilliánwála the bloody battle was fought and won by the British. On 13th January 1849, Sher Singh again marched southwards, the British army pressed him; and on the 22nd February 1849 he turned to fight at Gujrát. The decisive engagement which ensued broke irretrievably the power of the Sikhs.

Towns and Municipalities.

Chapter VI. Towns and Municipalities. History.

The town of Gujrát was first constituted a municipality of the 2nd class in 1866. In 1884, a Municipal Board of the 2nd class was formed, consisting of President and 14 members, of whom-4 are nominated by the Deputy Commissioner and 10 are elected.

Table No. XLV shows the income of the Municipality for the last few years. It is derived from octroi levied on the value of almost all goods brought within municipal limits. Gujrát is the great commercial town of the district, collecting wheat, pulses, oilseeds from the interior of the district and surrounding towns and villages. It is also the chief entrepôt for piece-goods, raw iron and other Europe goods, which are imported from Europe. Some of the grain-dealers and commercial houses have very large dealings, and there are several native banking houses of high standing. A large traffic in dried fruits, from Kashmír, passes through Gujrát during the autumn months.

The chief local manufacture is Gujrát cloth, shawls, embroidery, native cloths and pashmina work (though much on the decline now). The brass vessels of Gujrát are well known, and the boot-makers supply boots and shoes to many native regiments in distant parts of the Punjab. The koftgari and carpenter's work of Gujrát is famous.

The following table gives certain statistics of the trade of the municipal town of the Gujrát:—.

Nan	ne óf Ar	ticles.	Value in rupces, 1881-82.	Weight or value in rupees, 1891-92.		
Wheat Refined sugar Uprefined sugar! Ghi Animals for slaus	 	•••	•••	•••	Rs. 1,70,062 45,955 12,625 19,040	Mds. 1,54,363 3,528 13,219 1,373 Rs. 23,862
Oil	•••	···	•••	,		Mds. 416
Sarson, &c	•••	••	•••	•••	•••	3,304
Medicines	***	••• ,	•••	•••	3,260	Rs. 21,744 Mds.
Tobacco	***		•••	•••		3,522 Rs.
Cloth	•••	•••		•••		1,36,849

The principal institutions of this town are the Government Institutions and District School and the Mission School. The school buildings public bulidings. are both good structures; and the education imparted is up to The remaining public buildings and offices are the Entrance.

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Municipalities.

public buildings.

the Deputy Commissioner's Court and District offices, the Treasury building, Police office, Police lines, Post office, Dispensary building, the bárádari building, the Church and the staging bungalow. On the southern side of the town are the garden and tank, known as Paske's garden and tank, the Jail and Thána and the Grand Trunk Road; and further on is the line of the North Western Railway and dak bungalow adjoining, with Railway station and Telegraph office. Within the town there are a sarái, a police thána, and a branch school. The Town Hall, where the municipal meetings are held, the Tahsil and Police station, also a branch of the District School, are all situated in the fort which lies in the heart of the town. The Jail was formerly in the Civil station, but as it was washed down by a flood of the neighbouring Bhimbar river, the prisoners are located in the masonry sarái at the south-west corner of the town. District School is outside and near the north face of the town, and at the south is a neatly laid out plot of ground with tank and fountain called Paske's garden, the daily resort of loungers, much appreciated by the native community. was instituted by Colonel Paske, formerly Deputy Commissioner of Gujrát, and has been lately greatly improved. A Jubilee Hall in it has lately been erected by subscription collected in the Jubilee year 1887.

There are 69 mosques and 52 temples and 11 dharmsálás, or places of worship of Muhammadans, Hindús and Sikhs, respectively, in the city and environs of Gujrát. The Railway station lies about a mile to the south-west of the city, and the Military encamping-ground nearly a mile to the north-west. The Civil lines, which contain most of the public buildings, are situated about a mile to the north of the town and two miles from the Railway station. There is no travellers' bungalow in the Civil station, the Sessions house consists of two rooms in the old dâk bungalow which was a few years ago converted into a Courthouse.

The population at the enumeration of 1868, 1881 and 1891 are given below:—

Population and vital statistics.

Y	ear of	Census	•	Persons.	Males.	Females.	
1868	•••			17,321	9,496	7,825	
1881	•••	••1		18,743	9,577	9,166	
1891		18,050	9,340	8,710			

It is difficult to ascertain the precise limits within which the enumerations of 1868 and 1875 were taken; but the details in the following table, which give the population of suburbs, -

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Population and vital statistics.

throw some light on the matter. The figures for the population within municipal limits according to the census of 1868, are taken from the published tables of the census of 1875; but it was noted at the time that their accuracy was in many cases doubtful:—

Ja,	-		Population.					
Towns or subur	·b.		1868.		1881.		1891.	
Gujrát town				14,905		16,405	17,308	
Garhi Musallián	•••	•••	7		ς	558	363	
Fatahpur	•••	•••	5	1,035	5	852	21	
Núrpur, Ranghpur	•••	•••		541		347	168	
Civil Lines	•••	•••		840		581	379	

Jalálpur town.

Jalálpur is a municipal town situated in latitude 32°, 21', 35" north, longitude 75° 15' east, eight miles north-east of Gujrát. Its population according to census of 1891 is 11,065 souls. It forms the principal trade mart of the eastern portion of the district, and has a considerable manufacture of shawls, the work of a Kashmiri colony, which are exported chiefly to Amritsar. The Municipal Committee consists of 12 members, of whom 4 are nominated by the Deputy Commissioner, and 12 are elected. Table No. XLV shows the income of this Municipality for the last few years; it is derived from octroi levied on the value of almost all goods brought within the municipal limits. Jalálpur is well situated in a fine open and highly cultivated country, at the cross-road leading respectively to Siálkot, Jhelum, Jammu and Gujrát. It has a good bázár of sheps through the town from north to south, and a large number of well-built houses; a well attended Government School; Town Hall for municipal meetings, and a commodious sarái with accommodation for European travellers. There is also a Post and Telegraph office and a dispensary. Jalálpur is said to have been founded by a Gujar called Jalál in the time of Akbar, and rose to importance by its shawl manufactures which were introduced some 50 years ago, when the great famine in Kashmir known as the markan caused a large number of Kashmiri weavers to emigrate to the Punjab and ply their trade in Amritsar, Jalálpur, &c. The manufacture increased largely under British rule, but has declined since the Franco-Prussian war, as France was the chief European market for this class of goods and has not recovered its demand for the The trade however is still better than it was before the annexation of the Punjab. Shawl-weaving is also practised in the town of Gujrát, but not to the same extent as in Jalálpur.

The number of persons employed in shawl-weaving, embroidery and cognate manufactories was in 1869 2,267, in 1876 1,300, and in 1882 840. The account given of the state of the industy in 1882 is worthy of record:—

Towns and Municipalities.
Shawl-weaving.

"The large population of shawl-weavers are all deeply in debt. When a lad has acquired sufficient dexterity to weave the intricate patterns in vogue, his master considers him to be indebted to himself in the sum which it has cost to maintain him while he was learning the trade. With this load of debt as a commencement, it is not strange that no one ever makes enough by his subsequent labour to work off debt, interest, and successive advances. The shagirds or workmen are therefore in a condition little better than that of slaves, and by a custom of the trade, when a workman leaves one master for another, the second takes over the debt and pays the old master in full. This keeps up the income of the masters, but does not benefit the workmen; and they consequently begin to desert in large numbers, and with the aid of rival masters to cause great derangement in the mannfacture. The legislature passed an Act XIII of 1859 providing a summary remedy for such breaches of contract, under which large numbers of disputes are satisfactorily adjusted."

The state of the industry has been steadily declining. Amritsar has drawn away most of the workmen to her looms. Jalálpur contains no big merchants, who can employ any large number of hands, and the native workman is in such a small market unable to support himself. The articles now produced are few in number and of indifferent workmanship.

The population as ascertained at the enumerations of 1868, 1881 and 1891 are given below:—

Population.

Year.				Persons.	Males.	Females.	
7.000				15 500		7 000	
1868	•••	•••	•••	15,526	8,324	7,202	
1881	•••	••		12,839	6,665	6,174	
1891	•••	•••		11,065	5,665	5,400	

It is difficult to ascertain the precise limits within which the enumerations of 1868 and 1875 were taken. The figures for the population within municipal limits according to the census of 1868 are taken from the published tables of the census of 1875; but it was noted at the time that their accuracy was in many cases doubtful. It would appear from the information supplied by the Deputy Commissioner that the municipal limits were altered between 1868 and 1875, so as to exclude suburbs which had been included in the former census. But the decrease in population is chiefly attributable to the decline in the shawl manufacture already alluded to. The constitution of the population by religion and the numbers of occupied houses are shown in Table No. XLIII.

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Towns and
Municipalities.
Imports.

The following table shows the principal articles imported into municipal limits:—

Nat	ne of a	article	s .		Value in rupees, 1881-82.	Weight or value in rupees, 1891-92
Wheat		•••	•••	•••	1,15,875	Mds. 63,316 Mds. S.
Refined sugar	•••	***	***	***	26,910	2,431 30
Unrefind sugar	•••	•••	•••	•••	10,025	Mds. 6,641
Ghi	•••	***	•••	***	8,200	Mds. S. C. 359 27 8
Animals for sla	nghter		•••	•••		Rs. 6,542 Mds.
Oil	•••	•••	•••	•••		159
Sarson, &c.	•••	141	•••	•••	 .	Mds. S. 4,694 25 Rs.
Medicines	• * *	•••	•••	•••	2,010	14,024 Mds.
Tobacco	•••	•••	•••	•••		2,951
Cloth	•••	•••	100	•••	23,230	Rs. 65,285

Kunjah.

The town of Kunjah is situated 7 miles from Gujrát on the Gujrát-Phália road. It is situated in north latitude 32° 31′ 45″ and east longitude 74° 1′. It has a population of 5,474 persons and is rather an agricultural than a trading centre. It contains a bázár, a grain market, a school house and dispensary. The Municipal Committee consists of 9 members, of whom 2 hold their posts ex-officio, 1 is nominated, and 6 are elected. The income for the last few years is shown in Table No. XLV; it is derived from octroi levied on the value of almost all goods imported into the town.

It is an ancient city, but its early history is uncertain, though tradition says that one Jethu Varaich, founded it in Taimur's time. Its most prosperous period was in the time of the wealthy Diwan Kirpa Ram, who was Governor of Kashmir in the reign of Ranjít Singh. Most of the finest houses of Kunjah belonged to Kirpá Rám and his relations. Owing, however, to the intrigues of the Jammu Rájas, Kirpá Rám lost his lucrative office of Diwán; and left his home at Kunjah to become a recluse at Hardwar, where he died. Since then Kunjah began to fall into decay, stately buildings and gardens being now in a more or less ruined condition. A fine masonry tank in a good state of preservation, and in daily use, keeps the name of the Diwan fresh in the memory of the people; a handsome garden with bárádári and fountains in the vicinity, but now much dilapidated, also bears his name. One of the gardens of the family, purchased by Government, new contains a school which

is fairly attended, and in another of these gardens is located the Charitable Dispensary. The following table gives certain statistics of the trade of Kunjah town:—

Towns and Municipalities. Kunjah.

I	MPORT	s.			Value in punes.	Weight or value in rupees, 1891-92.	
Name	of ar	ticles.			Value in rupees, 1881-82.		
Wheat			•••		20,272	Mds. 6,930	
Refined sugar	•••	•••	•••		7,605	333	
Unrefined sugar	•••	•••	•••	•••	2,875	1,425	
Ghi	•••	•••			2,100	125	
Animals for slave	ghter	•••	··· ,		***	Rs. 3,202 Mds.	
Oil	• • •	•••	***			92	
	•••	***	•••	***	***	142 Rs.	
Medicines .	••	•••	•••	•••	2,300	2,152	
Cloth	•••	•••	•••		1,400	7,564 Mds.	
Tobacco		•••	•••			446	

The population, as ascertained at the enumerations of 1868

Year	rs.	Persons.	Males.	Females.		
1868		5,975	3,187	2,788		
1881		5,799	3,009	2,790		
1891		5,474	2,733	2,741		

and 1881 and 1891, is shown in the margin. It is difficult to ascertain the precise limits within which the enumeration of 1868 was taken. The figures for the population within municipal limits, accord-

ing to the census of 1868, are taken from the published tables of the census of 1875; but it was noted at the time that their accuracy was in many cases doubtful. It would appear from information supplied by the Deputy Commissioner that the hamlets of Kot and Palta, which were included in the census of 1868, were afterwards excluded from municipal limits. The constitution of the population by religion and the number of occupied houses are shown in Table No. XLIII.

Dingah is situated 22 miles to the west of Gujrát on the road to Shahpur. It is a municipal town situated in north latitude 32° 38′ and east longitude 73° 40′ 25″. The Municipal Committee consists of 9 members, two hold their posts ex-officio, one is nominated and 6 are elected. The income for the last few years is shown in Table No. XLV and is derived from the octroi levied on the value of almost all goods brought within municipal limits. The Railway station of Dingah is situated about

Dingah Town.

Towns and Municipalities. Dingah Town. half a mile to the south of the town and outside municipal limits. The town is said to have been founded by chaudri Mokim Khán, 350 years ago. It became a place of importance as the residence of the iláka kardárs, it is not a place of much trade, though, since the opening of the Railway, business is more brisk. Dingah is provided with a Middle School, Charitable dispensary, sarái with two rooms for accommodation of travellers, Police station, and Post office. The following table gives some statistics of the trade of the town:—

]	MPORT	s.			Value in rupees,	Weight or value in	
Nam	ie of a	rticles	3.		1881-82.	rupees, 1891-92.	
Wheat	***	•••	•••	•••	18,550	Mds. 26,06 0	
Refined sugar	***	··· .	•••	•••	10,920	1,669	
Unrefined sugar	•••	***	***	•••	2,500	5,399	
Ghí	•••	•••	•••	•••	1,400	191	
Animals for slav	ghter	•••	•••	•	•••	Rs. 3,868	
Oil	•••	***	***	•••	·	Mds. 126	
Sarson, &c.	***	***	***	•••		175	
Medicines	•••	•••	•••	•••	800	Rs. 9,509	
Tobacco	•••	•••	•••	•••		Mds. 4,012	
Cloth	•••	•••	***	•••		Rs. 31,075	

The principal inhabitants are Kathána Gujars, among whom have been many influential men; the present zaildár Muhammad Khan, is son of the late Abdulla Khan, a chaudri of note, who managed the *iláka* under the Sikh rule.

The population of the town at different enumerations is shown below:—

Years.					Persons.	Males.	Females.
1868 1881		•••		•••	4,954 5,015	2,608 2,602	2,346 2,413
1891	•••				5,424	2,864	2,560

STATISTICAL TABLES

APPENDED TO THE

GAZETTEER

OF THE

GUJRAT DISTRICT.

(INDEX ON REVERSE.)

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· 1			2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Details.			1853-51.	1858- 5 9.	1803-64.	1868-69.	1873-74.	1878-79.	1883-84.	1891-92.
Population						616,509		689,115	689,115	760,875
Cultivated acres	•••					654,458	746,830	801,339	774,944	796,733
Irrigated acres						235,573	234,560	238,210	264,050	214,369
,, from Government v	rorks							•••		•••
Assessed land revenue, Rs.						6,12,133	6,17,300	5,87,727		6,70,348
Revenue from land, Rs					•••	5,53,273	5,67,833	5,82,493	6,07,610	6,74,727
Gross revenue, Rs	•••		•••	•••	***	6,31,580	6,75,673	7,49,685	7,78,197	8,04,025
Number of kine	•••					322,437	216,452	192,270	268,364	401,535
", ", sheep and goats	•••					66 ,44 3	75,005	77,081	74,415	90,879
", ", camels …					•••	1,272	1,727	1,737	1,182	1,692
Miles of metalled roads		•••)	ſ ¹³	55	55	48
", ", unmetalled roads	•••				•••	} 716}	650	650	650	650
" " railways …						•••	,	•••	76	76
Police staff					350	409	432	394	371	373
Prisoners convicted	•••	•••	838	992	680	1,873	1,589	1,542		1,631
Civil suits, number			2,223	1,840	2,670	3,856	6,935	7,079	8,290	9,023
" " rupees		•••	92,135	91,916	1,22,994	1,35,766	2,18,192	2,92,692	3,94,049	6,11,189
Municipalitics, number							2	4	4	4
ineome in ru	pees					17,008	28,212	18,413	26,521	46,923
Dispensaries, number		-						10		1.5
	•••	•••		•••		85.070	6	12	12	12
Schools, number	•••	•••		ļ ""		25,076				105,648
	•••	•••	•••		04				46	49
" scholars		•••		l	2,57	3,476	3,264	4,193		

Gujrat District. Table No. IIIA,—showing DISTRIBUTION of RAINFALL.

					1						2	3	1
•											An	NUAL AVEBAG	ES.
	,			Ж	onth.						Rainfall in te	nthe of an inch 1868-1892.	in each month
											Sadr Gujrát.	Tabsíl Kbárián.	Tahsíl Phúlia.
													_
January	•••	•••	•••	***	•••	•••	•••		***		16	19	9
February	•••	•••	•••			•••	•••	•••	•••		11	17	15
March		•••			•••	•••	•••		•••		17	17	14
April	•••	•••		***	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	9	9	10
May	•••		•••		•••	•••	***	•••	•••	.	9	12	10
June	•••			•••		•••	•••			.	23	24	14
July	•••	•••			•••	•••		•••	•••		73	69	
August		•••								•••	57	68	49
September	•••			•••		•••					22	31	18
October	•••						•••	•••	•••	•••	5	6	4
November		•					•••	•••	•••		3	3	2
December		•••		•••	•••	•••	•••		•••		7	7	6
1st January	to 31	et May	·	•••		•••	•••	•••		•••	65	73	. 59
1st June to	30th 8	eptem	ber	•••		•••		•••		•••	37	46	30
1st October	to 3 1s	t Dec	embor	·			•••		•••		152	160	122

			Ĺ	Punjab	Gazettee
Table No.	V,—showing the	DISTRIBUTION of	P0	PULATI	ON-

			1							Ī	3	3	4	5
			D	etaile	9.		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		· ·		District.	Tahsil Gujrát,	Tahsil Khárián.	Tahsil Phália.
Tota	l square miles	•••	•••	•••		•••	•••	•••	•••		1,819	543	602	671
Culti	vated, square miles				•••	•••	•••		•••		1,245	431	406	408
Cult	irable, square miles		•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	315	31	73	208
Squa	re miles under crops	(avera	ige)	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••		•••	•••			•••
Tota	population		•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	760,875	308,861	218,076	203,938
Rura	l population		•••		٠٠.		•••	•••	•••	•••	720,862	274,272	242,653	203,938
Urbs	n population	•••	***	•••	•••	••	•••	•••	***	•;•	40,013	34,589	5,424	•••
Tota	l population per squ	aro mil	e	•••	•••	***	•••	•••	•••	•••	412	. 568	412	302
Rura	l population per squ	aro mil	lo	***	•••	***	***	•••	***	•••	396	505	403	302
	Over 10,000 souls	***	•••		•••	•••	•••	•••	***	•••	2	2		,
	5,000 to 10,000	***	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	3	1	1	. 1
llages,	3,000 to 5,000		•••	•••	;··	441	•••	•••	•••		3	2	1	
and Villages.	2,000 to 3,000	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	28	15	2	11
Towns a	1,000 to 2,000	•••	•••	•••		***	•••		••	•••	141	47	49	48
ŭ	500 to 1,000	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	**1	•••	335	118	130	87
	Under 500	•••	***	•••	•••	•••			**1	•••	823	337	324	162
							Total	117	***	***	1,338	552	. 507	309
	Occupied houses	{ ^T	owns	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	. 	180,0	59,998	936	•••
			illnge	S	•••	•••	***	•••	***		98,817	40,116	28,581	28,150
	Resident families	}	owns Tillage		***	, 	•••	***	•••	•••	150.000	1		
],,

Table No. VI,—showing MIGRATION.

1		2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4] 5
	- u	nts.	, vi	Males P OF BOTH			ıts.			PER 1,00 I SEXES.
Districts		Immigrants.	Emigrants	Immi- grants. Emi- grants.		Districts.	Immigrants.	Emigrants.	Immi- grants.	Emi- grants.
Juliundur Jhung Lahore Amritsar Gurdáspur Siálkot		118 120 187 896 399 432 7,369 9,359 5,148	72 174 390 11,961 1,010 446 8,494 8,730 8,424	618 675 476 279 559 433 300 356 346	639 644 551 867 615 513 376 685 411	Jhelnm	4,733 380 101 552 71 313 10,101 272 22	7,252 2,971 757 3,751 	346 553 653 629 594 658 303 783 591	437 718 722 793

Table No. VII,—showing RELIGION and SEX.

			:	I					2	3	4	5	6	7
									7	District	•		l'ausils.	
									Persons.	Males.	Females.	Gujrát.	Phália.	Khárián,
Persons Males Females					:::				760,875 	400,514	360,361	308,861 162,316 146,545	203,938 108,662 95,276	129,530
Hindús Sikhs Jains	:::			:::				:::	72,394 19,018	37,774 10,599		6,185	22,701 6,676	
Buddhists Zoroastrian	s		•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••			:::]		***
Musalmans Others and	unspe					•••	•••	•••	669,347 2	352,077 1 63	317,270 1 51	266,44;	174,560	2
European a Sunnís Shiáhs	na Eu	rasian 	s Chri	stians 	•••	•••	•••		114 664,381 1,839	•••		 90	•••	23
Vaháb ís	•••	•••	•••	***	•••	•••	•••	•••	66	•••		}	•••	•••

Table No. VIII,—showing LANGUAGES.

			1					2	3	4	5
					•			•	Distr	IBUTION BY TAIL	sils.
		La	nguag	ge.				Distriet.	Gujrát,	Kbárián.	Phália.
Hindústáni			,					559	349	167	43
Punjábi	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••		759,915	308,266	247,780	203,869
Pashtu		•••			•••			79	29	47	3
Kashmiri		•••	•••		•••	•••		191	140	43	8
Persian	•••	•••			•••	•••		22	16	6	***
English	•••	•••	•••	•••	•			46	28	17	1

[Punjab Gazetteer, Table No. IX,—showing MAJOR CASTES and TRIBES.

1		2	•		3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
					То	таь Numb	ers.		Teibes by	Religio)X.	
VIII						1	<u> </u>		<u> </u>] .		
Serial Number in Census table No, VIII.	Caste	e or Tr			i'orsons.	Males,	Penales.	Hindús,	Sikbs,	Juin,	Ausalmáns,	Proportion per mile of population.
	Tota	l popu	lation		760,875	100,511	360,361	72,391	19,018		669,317	, 1,000
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12	Jat Rájpút Awán Gújar Aráin Sheikh Mughal Bráhman Syad Nái Mirúsi Khatri				147,346 60,220 15,272 111,187 10,504 4,258 6,303 8,371 18,416 14,681 8,856 19,038	78,421 31,881 8,002 58,708 10,160 2,223 3,252 4,128 9,392 7,663 4,550 10,443	68,925 28,339 7,180 52,479 9,311 2,035 3,051 3,913 9,021 7,013 4,306 8,595	2,327 937 9 S1 8,226 212 11 16,574	315 45‡ 141 9		1\$4,674 58,820 15,263 111,106 19,504 4,258 6,303 4 15,416 14,460 3,845	193 70 20 116 25 5 8 11 21 19
13	Bhatís		•••		3,001	1,601	1,397	1,176	1,824	•••		4
14	Arora	•••	•••		26,272	11,203	12,069	18,252	7,007	•••	23	35
15	Labána	•••	•••		7,410	3,718	3,722	5,055		•••	2,381	9
16 17	Kashmiri Chuhra	•••	•••	"	31,153 46,863	16,294 24,165	17,859 22,698	4,706	1,623	•••	31,153 40,531	45 62
18	Mochi	•••			31,010	18,910	16,000	***		•••	31,910	46
19	Juláha	•••	•••		24,821	13,173	11,648	.1		•••	21,817	33
20	Jhinwar	•••	•••		7,213	3,810	3,433	3,083	99	•••	3,161	9 ·
21	Máchhi	•••			11,775	7,897	6,878			•••	14,775	19
22	Lohár	•••	•••		11,319	7,715	6,603	66,		•••	14,282	18 ,
23	Tarkbán	•••	•••		23,155	12,272	10,883	311	16		22,628	30
21	Kumhár	•••	•••		17,816	9,115	8,131	233	6	•••	17,607	23
25	Dhobi	•••	•••		8,150	4,280	3,870	153	3	•••	7,991	11
26	Teli	•••	•••		10,189	5,306	4,883	3 (10,186	13
27	Sunár	•••	in.		5,862	3,020	2,812	4,861	212	•••	759	8
					 !	!	i					

Gujrat District.]

Table No. IXA,—showing MINOR CASTES and TRIBES.

				1							2	3	4
			Cast	r or '	TRIBE	•					Persons.	Males.	Females.
Bahrúpia							.,.				1,202	612	590
Biloch	•••		•••		•••		•••	•••	•••	•••	757	366	391
Darzi	•••				•••		•••	•••	•••	•••	1,423	661	759
Fakir	•••				•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	3,073	1,633	1,410
Karral	•••			•••	•••	•••	•••		•••		1,731	1,725	6
Khoja	•••	•••	•••		•••	***		•••	•••	•••	2,592	1,094	1,498
Lilári	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••		•••	•••	•••	1,617	813	771
Máli			•••			•••		٠	•••	•••	2,253	1,139	1,114
Meg	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	1,438	749	689
Pathan	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	1,951	1,009	912
Qassáb	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	1,287	691	596
Sánsi	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	***		1,170	631	539
Ulama					•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	6,954	3,601	3,353

Table No. X,—showing CIVIL CONDITION.

1		2			3	4	5	6	7	8
				_	Sin	GLE.	Mar	RIED.	Wibo	WED.
	Details,				Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
Actual figures for religion.	All religions Hindus Sikhs Jains Buddhists Mussalmans Christians				211,380 20,634 5,396 188,319	147,820 12,358 2,962 132,483	162,808 11,845 4,511 113,478	172,100 17,013 4,388 150,677	23,236 2,295 659 20,280	40,432 5,219 1,069 31,110
lls	All ages				282	193	211	227	31	53
Distribution of every 10,000 souls of each age.	0-10		•••		52 4 506	469 335	2 . 41	6		2
7 10,0 5e.	15-20	•••			312	102	168	368	9	11
yori ob ag	20-25	•••	•••		172	13	326	418	21	20
of of cac	25-30	•••	•••	}	79	5	396	458	20	33
ttior 0	30-40	•••	•••		36	2	436	415	40	71
ıdiri	4050	•••	•••	•••	21	3	436	323	61	150
Dist	50-60 Over 60	•••	•••		21 21	2 2	415 335	206	121	235
	Over 60	•••			31	2	335	109	208	325

Table No. XI,-showing BIRTHS and DEATHS.

									6 [7	8	9	10
		1			2	3		5		· · ·			
				_	Тотль в	IRTHS REGI	ETERED.	TOTAL DI	ATHS REGI	STERED.	Тотль	DEATES	
		Years	•		Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Cholera.	Small- pox.	Fever.
				<u>-</u>									
1857	•••				14,341	12,715	27,059	10,282	0,444	19,726	446	. 185	12,152
1683		» •••		•••	15,045	13,291	28,330	10,310	0,530	19,819	497	179	11,170
1550		,,,			15,563	13,713	29,276	11,219	10,444	21,663	1	307	15,482
1890'		•••			11,101	12,160	26,351	28,596	26,166	54,762		439	41,081
1891	•••	•••	•••	•••	11,691	10,242	21,923	12,123	9,869	22,292	3	6	18,453
					<u> </u>		1		<u> </u>				

Table No. XIA,—showing MONTHLY DEATHS from ALL CAUSES.

				 1					2	3	4	б	6	7
				STH.					1887.	1899.	1889.	1890.	1891.	Total.
January							•••		1,190	1,599	1,399	2,160	2,031	8,378
February				•••		•••	•••		929	1,230	1,306	1,701	1,655	6,821
March	•••	•••	•••	•••		•••	•••		939	1,111	1,147	1,623	1,521	6,311
April	***		•••	•••	•••	***	•••		1,061	1,148	1,058	1,483	, 1,293 1,695	6,013 7,789
May	•••		•••	•••	•••	•••	•••		1,321	1,537	1,301	1,931	1,095	7,70
June	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	***	***	1,298	1,483	1,236	1,917 1,533°	1,005	1
July	***	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••		1,398	1,976	1,219	2,721	1	9,71
August	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••		1,909	1,917	1,360 2,108	11,990	1	20,37
Septemi	ocr	•••	•••	•••	***	•••	•••	•••	2,793	1,817	3,449	15,711		26,1
October	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	2,789	2,291 1,943	3,210	8,213	1	17,1
Noveml	er	•••	***	•••	•••	•••	•••	***	2,225 1,576	1,767	1	1	1	11,40
Decemb	er	<i>.</i>	•••		***	•••	•••	•••	3,576	1,.07				
						Total	•••	•••	19,726	19,849	21,663	51,762	22,202	138,2

Table No. XIB,-showing MONTHLY DEATHS from FEVER.

			1	 		 2	3	4	5	6	7
	•	Мо	NTII.			1837.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	Total.
January February March April May June July Angust September October November December		 		 ···	otal	786 607 611 639 552 849 871 1,049 1,589 1,926 1,592 1,231	943 679 595 643 860 873 989 1,035 1,144 1,508 1,338 1,179	936 865 731 667 881 890 815 953 1,157 2,848 2,696 2,232	1,557 1,057 990 914 1,332 1,392 1,037 2,104 11,115 15,120 7,752 3,101	1,705 1,363 1,304 1,114 1,445 1,735 3,756 1,573 1,361 1,505 1,236 965	5,527 4,571 4,231 4,007 5,370 5,739 7,498 6,714 16,666 22,997 14,664 9,011

Table No. XII,—showing INFIRMITIES.

				Infir	nit.						Males.	Females.	Total.
	<u> </u>												
Insane		•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••		•••		161	106	270
Blind						•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	1,151	1,143	2,297
Deaf and du	ımb	•••			•••	•••	•••				490	251	737
Lepers		•••							•••		143	49	192

Table No. XIII,—showing EDUCATION.

			1							2	3	4	5
										Mar	ES.	Fena	LES.
			Detai	LS.						Under instruction.	Can read and write.	Under instruction.	Can read and write.
All religions					•••			•••		5,632	18,351	275	501
Total Villages				•••		•••	•••	•••					
Hindûs									•••	1,860	8,472	18	75
Sikhs					•	•••	•			508	2,828	9	31
Jains					•••			•••					
Buddhists	•••		•••	•••	•	•••	•••	•••		1			
Muhammadans	•••	•••	•••	•••				•••		3,255	7,012	242	425
Christians	•••					•••	•••	•••	•••	9	39	6	30
Tahsíl Gujrát			•••			•••	•••		•••	2,826	7,586	140	262
Do. Khárián			•••	•••			•••	•••		1,718	5,112	91	143
Do. Phália			•••				•••	•••	•••	1,000	5,639	44	156

Table No. XIV, -showing DETAILS of SURVEYED and ASSESSED AREA.

									[Pu	njab	Gaze	ttee
11	the pro-	owaste,	Unapproprieted enleurabl perty of Government.	Aeres.	61,652	52,975	51,009		3,390	25,322	27,688	56,100
10			Gross. ment.	Rs.	6,12,133	5,87,727	6,10,017		3,35,484	1,65,844	1,69,020	6,70,318
0			nseessed,	Acres.	1,244,428	1,209,712	1,185,319		347,217	385,210	431,683	1,164,110
æ			Total un- cultivated.	Acres.	589,970	408,373	381,383		71,324	125,105	170,918	367,377
7	Имепличтер.		Unent-	Acres.	316,000	156,505	167,058		49,151	78,151	38,119	165,754
9	Ux		Cultur- able.	Aeres.	273,280	251,668	214,325		21,870	46,951	132,799	201,023
2			Total cultiva- ted.	Acres.	651,458	801,339	803,936	.801-02.	275,803	260,105	200,735	700,733
*	red.		Unirri- gated.	Acres.	418,885	563,129	585,091	Танбіг вктапся гоп 1891-92.	200,500	240,135	132,420	182,364
က	CULTIVATED.	ted.	By pri- vale in- dividu- als.	Acres.	235,573	238,210	218,845	TARSIL DE	75,384	10,670	128,315	214,360
- 67		Irrigated.	By Gov- crament works.	Aeres.	:		:		:	:	:	
				<u> </u>	:	:	:		:	:	:	:
					:	:	:		:	:	:	:
					፥	:	:		:	:	:	:
					፥	:	:		:	:	:	
	i		ທໍ່ ທໍ		:	:	:		:	:	•	Total
-			Yeazs.		:	:	:		:	:	:	
				1	į	:	i		:	:	;	
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					1868-69	1678-79	1888-89		Tabsil Gujrât	" Khárián	"Phália	•

Gujrat District.	٠.	trict	Dis	rat	Gui
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3,664 20,011 3,035 13,440 112,671 2,123 130,001 2,520 Gross area in acres. 1 7,162 26,538 20 318 27, 171 669 121 537 356 Tansie Phaela, Number of holders, or shareholders, 16 12 21 285 326 ፥ ፥ 15 Number of villages. TENURES held direct from Government as they stood in 1891-92. 2 21 ፥ ፥ ፥ ä Number of estates. 385,536 32,717 285,708 2,486 12,094 F,670 202 19,73 : 13 Gross area in acres. 31,618 14,052 511 892 8 26,036 8,522 TABSIL KRARIAN. or shareholders. : 2 Number of holders 175 543 : : : 1 Number of villages. 173 359 543 : : : : ፧ Number of estates. 9 47,115 350,607 120 1,770 38,396 308,882 580 3,810 10,158 1,550 53.5 : Gross area in acres. 0 22,512 41,766 39,316 960 118 671 TAIKSIL GUJRAT. Number of holders or shareholders. ፥ œ 51 : : : : Number of villages. 7 811 514 ፥ ፥ Number of estates. 9 2,123 31,936 109,743 15,661 8,780 5,687 ,007,261 71,335 115,31: 1,176,04 Gross area in acres. r) 43,756 WHOLE DISTRICE. 91,890 1,058 106,885 3,100 Mimber of holders, 1, 413 1,002 ፥ : : Number of villages. Table No. XV,—showing es 1,113 1,092 281 ፥ Number of estates. ፡ ፥ ፧ : ፥ ፥ C.I Holdings included in the above, held wholly or partially free of revenue, viz.:-Lands included in the above of which the ownership is encumbered with usufructunary mortgages oţ : ፥ : : subject to conditions : ፥ ፧ ፥ perpetuity free of conditions Totul : : Total of these holdings : ፥ At pleasure of Government vithout : Villages held on zamíndári tenure– Dhaiáchara tenure Up to time of Settlement ፥ NATURE OF TENURE. Villages held on pattidari tenure For life or lives ... By several owners Government ADDENDA. By one owner : Lessees from ownership 딥 Ditto 4 65 ຜ່ çi Ą. ä

Table No. XVI,—showing TENURES not held from Government as they stood in 1891-92.

		1	2	3	4 (5 [6 -	7	8	9 .
			Dist		Tan Guji		Тан Киди	SIL IAN.	Tans Puat	
	CULTIVAT	TING OCCUPANCY.	Num- ber of hold- ings.	Area.	Num- ber of hold- ings.	Area.	Num- ber of hold- ings.	Area.	Num- ber of hold- ings.	Area.
Area	area cultivated enltivated by ov cultivated by to		266,151 126,418 11,959	796,733 531,773 10,420	109,971 52,091 3,414	275,893 171,167 2,260	42,507	260,105 171,461 4,901	56,881 31,850 2,956	260,735 189,142 3,250
paying rent.	With right of occupancy.	Paying at revenue rates, with or without malikana Paying other eash rents Paying in kind, with or with out an addition in eash	140	55,222 272 2,316	37	26,547 86 1,592	65		\$08 31 10	2,200 87 63
Area cultirated by tenants paying rent.	Without	Paying at revenue rates, with or without malikana Paying other eash rents Paying in kind, with or with out an addition in eash	16,265 14,537	35,269	2,729	5,538	8,199	11,951	3,609	9,113 14,777 41,768
Area e	Total he	ld by tenants paying rent	121,717	2,51,510	51,469	99, 157	48,170	£3,745	22,078	68,313
		RENTS.	Irrigat- ed.	Unirri-	Irrigat- ed.	Aneas Unitrigated.	Irrigat- ed.	Unirrigated.	Irrigat-	Unirrigated.
paid.	Rents in kind	 Zabti rents Half produce or more Two-fifths produce and less than laft One-third produce and less than two-fifths 	21 10,528 1,596 19,809	5,351 21,088	8,902 811 2,189	21,607 2,832 4,163	474 19 431	792 6,399	766 17,190	
nd arca on which		5. Less than one-third 6. By fixed amount of produce 7. Total area under rents in kind	1,918 6,062 39,931	6,09	5,317	5,013	60	709	679	311
Detail of ronts and arca on Which paid	Cash rents	(8. Tota! area paying cash rent	9,538	*						3,860 8,226
		10. Total eash rents	20,950	61,72	9,170	7,905	780	26,519	10,931	27,299

Table No. XVII,—showing GOVERNMENT LANDS.

Gujra	at D	istrict.		r				x
	8		Income for year ending 30th Septem- ber 1892.	Rs.	7,092	225	. 78	6,780
	4		Under Deputy Commissioner's management.	Acres.	290°C	5,277	1,685	2,101
S.	9	Remaining area.	Under other Departments.	Acres,	3,124	703	1,659	679
ENT LANI	ı	R	Under Forest Department.	Acres.	48,359	128,2	25,069	20,466
Table No. XVII,—showing GOVERNMENT LANDS.	4	Area held under culti- vating leases.	Uncultirated.	Acres.	218	:	314	T0T .
II,—showing	6	AREA HELD UNDER VATING LEASES.	Cultivated during the year.	Acres.	475	:	93	383
able No. XV	5	March Sweet Sp. 755 - 27 July Specific Sea.	Total area for Rabi 1892	Acres.	61,240	8,804	28,621	23,725
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16	Vegetables.	18,336	20,202	22,165	21,004	82,607	ಜ	22,070	26,405	11,021	16,128	14,310	198,60	C3
51	5идателпе.	6,411	0,088	098'9	7,221	27,522	1	f8f '9	7,740	5,175	0,310	7,156	32,013	1
=	.ozibnI	9#	8	83	47	180	:	<u>1</u> }	45	80	5	113	355	:
13	Cotton.	22,660	24,619	21,466	21,716	03,470	3	19,582	20,754	17,827	16,237	22,051	. 00,151	63
13	Tobacco,	3,411	2,700	2,176	2,380	10,706	÷	2,136	4,146	2,608	3,096	3,068	15,05£	:
n n	Poppy.	241	253	320	330	1,150	:	405	280	351	265	220	1,527	:
10	добр.	28,006	30,515	30,539	20,010	119,090	47)	14,187	20,230	22,701	24,170	25,370	106,685	3
6	Gram.	27,080	28,304	30,330	31,728	121,042	+;1	38,757	10,476	0,655	8,744	8,633	82,665	દા
8	Barley.	69,319	65,000	66, 130	100,73	268,781	O	75,113	128,20	53,207	51,922	48,013	321,500	G
2	Zalze.	29,211	18,245	16,469	16,507	 73,401	3	15,382	16,126	15,205	16,789	18,726	82,228	61
9	Bújra.	110,273	110,671	120,076	120,61.4	485,631	10	78,208	82,190	120,021	137,284	145,221	572,067	Iŭ
10	.Tù Wol	59,712	15,813	71,570	68,482	 215,577	7	33,112	53,112	62,013	62,352	71,238	283,027	7
4	Wheat.	218,757	232,720	260,621	268,316	080,423	33	306,916	365,677	327,120	328, 180	326,750	1,654,082	136
63	Hice.	8,814	10,131	107,303	0,000	133,517	æ	1,116	3,693	6,753	7,403	6,667	26,022	п
63	Total.	701,427	675,481	837,031	750,930	2,007,869	100	679,963	801,330	733,502	711,905	751,600	3,711,318	:
]	:	:	:	:	 <u> </u>	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
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	ů,	:	:	÷	:	Total	:		:	:	:	:	Total	:
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		1873-74	1874-73	1875-70	1870-77		e-1	1877-73	1878-70	1870-50	1890-81	1881-82	٠	Ħ

CROPS—concluded.
UNDER
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District.]																			xvii
10	Vegetable.	11.973	11.010	010,21	15,303	20,513	13,316		79,068	23		17,811	10,438	11,033	8,497	4,811		61,596	2
	5икатсапе.	1961	200	670'	6,929	7,018	7,395		36,538	-		828'9	8,640	6,798	6,552	2,400		31,268	1
1	.ogibaI	112	1	2	20	117	8		499	:	1	7.1	162	106	130	70		200	:
13	Состоп.	39 991	107,00	22, 133	21,418	41,864	54,118		172,411	4		18,157	23,874	44,458	21,883	2,881		110,853	3
123	Tobacco.	60 6	170°0	2,008	3,219	4,435	1,978		17,152	:		4,807	3,659	2,381	472	2,526		13,845	:
# /·	Poppy.	- 1	017	125	423	189	134		1,375	-		226	220	150	110	98	ĺ	813	:
01	yloth.	71	011,12	780,72	30,877	21,476	45,381		152,736	Ť		31,558	30,158	36,395	41,823	42,271		188,205	20
G	Gram.	1	016,11	12,249	17,613	12,609	10,561		61,638	1		16,534	28,563	25,785	21,400	32,950		128,211	က
œ	Barley.		48,017	49,041	53,914	199'69	40,795		261,088	9		46,055	47,233	31,263	189'99	416,01		213,516	4
	Maize,		18,002	20,047	18,421	23,660	25,758		105,807	61)	21,191	18,970	10,897	18,401	20,179		95,728	61
9	.ariby		138,870	138,823	135,212	92,211	139,965		180,519	16		131,069	126,151	131,365	156,324	81,180		629,391	17
13	.107/0L		61,473	73,516	146,80	52,054	63,358		321,715	80		64,263	60,116	66,014	64,261	16,811		301,465	80
-34	W beat.		321,054	317,617	336,903	310,352	293,568		1,580,394	33		302,024	305,515	203,054	361,762	288,659		1,552,814	42
en .	Rice.		6,546	5,368	4,081	6,283	0,081		31,809	1		10,313	8,991	8,702	10,739	902'6		48,011	1
· e1	Total.		967,257	774,911	796,811	730,119	757,976		1,027,467	;		728,287	747,585	733,880	852,691	616,368	-	3,708,751	÷
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		 	፥	÷	:	:	:		:	:		:	:	:	:	:		=	:
1	Уелья,		1882-83	1883-84	1881-95		:		Total	Percentage		882-88	:	05.051		: :		Total	Percentage

Table No. XXI,—showing PREVAILING RENTS. 1 2 2 2 2 2 2 3 3 3 4 5 5 6 7 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	ENTS. 2 YEAR TO YEAR.	eviii
RENTS COMMONDY FAID BY LEATERS		
	Cash rent per acre.	Kind rent per cent. of gross produce.
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	a. p. Rs. a.	C Ir
	7 0 0 to 2 0 0	
For allavial land advantaged by river floods	3 10 0 to 1 8 0.	50 to 33
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	3 0 0 to 0 8 0	Gazet 88 04 09
	230 to 080	50 to 33

Table No. XXII, -showing NUMBER of STOCK.

t Di	istric	et.]										xix
13	.02.	Phália.	86,725		2,010	4,562	29,867	:	455	22,307	201	30
12	Танзия гов 1801-02.	Kbárián.	00,701		2,363	5,003	36,570	:	003	27,088	13	&
11	Тапя	Gujrát,	103,073		2,7,2	6,020	25,112	i	315	32,010	311	33
10		1801-02.	200, 180		7,125	16,476	90,879	:	1,602	82,335	210	l:
6	AB,	1888-89,	307,636	•	4,872	11,810	68, 159	:	1,627	80,392	289	08
8	Wuoln district von the xuar,	1883-81,	268,364	3,205)	1,022	0,860	71,415	:	1,182	71,213	556	06
2	LB DISTRICT	1878-79.	102,270	3,011	991	8,596	77,081	:	1,737	40,792	70	48
9	Мио	1873.74.	216,452	3,687	2,031	7,413	72,005	:	1,727	62,061	813	2,010
10		1868-69.	322, 137	0,351	5,273	15,117	66,113	:	1,272	68,971	192	202
47	BTILEMENT.	Phália.	86,110	000	0,50,0	2,784	11,057	:	255	18,031	:	:
က	Tansils for Revisid Settlement.	Khúrián.	58,111	000	307,4	4, 158	22,583	:	466	25,219	:	:
8	TARSILS FOR	Gnjrát.	80,308	ı	007.	4,042	15,525	:	375	29,361	:	₽
			:	~ 	<u></u>	:	:	:	:	:		<u> </u>
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1		Kiyd or Stock.	Cows, bullocks	Horses	Ponies	Donkeys	Shoop and goats	Pigs	Camole	Plonghs	Carts	Boats "

Table No. XXIII,—showing OCCUPATIONS of MALES.

1	2		3	4	5
<u>'</u>			Males a	BOVE 15 YEARS	OF AGE.
No.	Nature of occupations		Towns.	Villages.	Total.
1	Total population		14,513	195,758	210,271
2	Occupation specified		14,081	181,107	195,188
3	Agricultural, whether simple or combine	ed	3,942	111,992	115,934
4	Civil administration		699	1,909	2,608
5	Army		35	1,597	1,632
6	Religion		456	1,960	2,416
7	Barbers		224	2,570	2,794
8	Other professions		213	1,062	1,275
9	Money-lenders, general traders, pedlars,	&c	314	1,438	1,752
10	Dealers in grain and flour		1,031	4,910	5,941 ·
11	Corn-grinders, parehers, &c		22	60	82
12	Confectioners, green-grocers, &c.		248	. 227	475
13	Carriers and boatmen		342	2,502	2,844
14	Landowners		1,524	76,104	77,628
15	Tenants		2,192	30,519	39,711
16	Joint cultivators		26	673	699
17	Agricultural labourers		95	1,514	1,609
18	Pastoral		48	1,230	1,278
19	Cooks and other servants		326	1,522	1,848
20	Water-earriers		195	2,352	2,547
21	Sweepers and scavengers		186	3,516	3,702
22	Workers in reed, cane, leaves, straw, &c		81	3,113	3,194
23	Workers in leather		38	63	101
24	Boot-makers		164	7,517	7,681
25	Workers in wool and pashm	,,,,	1,621	105	1,726
26	,, ,, silk			• •••	·
27	,, ,, cotton	•• •••	935	11,823	12,758
28	,, ,, wood		254	3,623	3,877
29	Potters		207	2,704	2,911
30	Workers and dealers in gold and silver .		314	1,237	1,551
. 31	Workers in iron		137	1,739	1,876
32	General labourers		326	2,272	2,598
33	Beggars, fakirs, and the like		858	7,279	8,137
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		Females.	5,025	212,350	27,114	81,762	10,022	7,822	13,257	300,361
91.	NUMBER OF PUBSONS.	Males.	7,972	235,091	33,712	85,956	10,935	10,406	16,412	400,514
IA,-showing OCCUPATIONS ACCORDING to CENSUS, 1891.	Nu	Total.	12,097	417,150	00,821	170,718	20,057	18,228	20,600	760,875
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			Government	Pasture and agrieulture	Personal service	Preparation and supply of material substances	Commerce, transport and storage	Professional	Indefinite and independent	1

Table No. XXIV,—showing MANUFACTURES.

							3	cxi
10	Total.	:	10,01	::	23,189	:	16,30,388	
18	Other manufae- tures.	:	360	::	360	:	38,775	
17	Gold, silver, and jevellery.	:	255	::	155	:	720 1,18,040	
16	Carpets,	:	ci -	::	स	:	720	
13	Pashmina and shawls.	:	150	::	450	:	2,951	
2	n isser q-liO gaindor bar.	:	499	::	490	:	23,603	-83
13	Pottery, com- mon and glazed.	:	1,130	::	1,130	:	61,210	380 figures are taken from the Report on Internal Trado and Manufactures for 1881-82.
ជ	Leather.	:	1,580	::	1,585	:	1,06,580	nfacture
11	Dyeing and manufactur- ing of dyes.	:	351	::	321	:	20,153	nd Man
10	szaiblings.	:	2,655	::	4,959	:	1,21,315	Trado a
6	Brass and cop-	:	11	::	81	:	4,566	Interna
ø	,norI	:	1,117	::	1,513	:	27,600 1,29,711	eport on
2	1V 00d.	:	306	::	456	:	27,609	m the R
9	Paper.	:	ri .	::	9	:	6 1 5	taken fre
10	Other fabrics.	:	i	::	:	:	<u>:</u>	ares are
4	.[00].		200	::	27.1	:	61,500	hese fig
ຄ	Cotton.	:	10,117	::	11,610	:	7,90,957	NorgThe
21	Silk,	:		::	:	:	:	
1	•	Number of mills and large fac-	Number of private looms or small works,	Number of workmen Malo in large works. Evenale	Number of workmen in small works or independent artisans.	Value of plant in large works	Estimated annual outturn of all works in rupees.	

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	10	Sugar.	First January.	တ်	01202000000000000000000000000000000000
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	8	Barley.	First January.	_{တ်}	84884888888888888888
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PRICE of	
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XXVII,-	
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Gujra	t Di	strict	·.]		•											xxiii
	8	٨	Boats per day.	Rs. a. p.	0 8 0	:	0 8 0	:	:	:	0 12 0	0 8 0	0 8 0	0 9 0	0 8 0	0 9 0
	2		Donkeys per score per day.	Rs. a. p.	3 12 0	:	3 12 0	3 0 0	3 12 0	3 12 0	:	:	3 2 0	2 8 0	3 2 0	2 8 0
	9		Camels per day.	Rs. a. p.	0 8 0	:	0 8 0	:	0 8 0	0 9 0	0 8 0	:	0 8 0	0 9 0	0 8 0	0 0 0
of LABOUR	5		Carts per day.	Rs. a. p.	1 12 0	1 12 0	2 0 0	1 8 0	2 0 0	1 0 0	2 8 0	1 0 0	1 0 0	1 0 0	100	100
ble No. XXVII,—showing PRICE of LABOUR.	4	er diem.	Unskilled.	Rs. a. p.	အ	0 2 0	0 3 0	0 2 6	0 2 0	0 8 0	0 8 0	0 2 6	0 8 0	0 2 0	0 8 0	0 2 6
.VII,—showi	င	WAGES PER DIEM.	Skilled.	Re. a. p.	9	0 % 0	0 2 0	0 4 6	0 4 0	0 2 0	0 4 0	0 9 0	0 8 0	0 2 0	0 8 0	0 20 0
10. XX					:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Table I	27				Highest	. Lowest	(Highest	Lowest	Highest	Lowest	Highest	Lowest	Highest	Lowest	Highest	Lowest
						√ ~::		~~ 		~~ 		~~		~~ ::)
	1					:		:		:		:		:		:
	н		YEAR.			:		:		:		:		:		:
			,			1868-69	;	1873-74		1878-79		1883-84		1888-89		1891-92

YEAR.

1869-70 1808-60

1870-71

1872-73

1873-71

1975-70 1876-77 1878-79

1879-80

1880-81

1881-82 1882-83

1883-84

1885-86

1886-97 1887-58 1888-89

1889-90

1881-85

7,63,715 7,92,762 7,78,051 7,99,81-4 87,559 97,123 086,10,1 3,972 4,882 4,076 1,965 4,411 13,900 11,117 38,744 38,850 38,747 67,269 61,219 61,310 01,315 66,768 70,079 71,237 68,661 13 Tributo. Fluctuating and miscel-lancous land re-venue, 6,512 20,606 32,512 7,022 4,856 3,306 4,700 6,314 1,014 1,365 1,530 6,281 6,226 5,547 1,272 3,601 3,400 1,939 3,566 1,695 3,017 3,623 Fixed land revenue. Rs. 5,52,273 5,02,016 6,08,519 5,56,280 5,58,000 5,61,527 5,64,689 5,61,941 5,66,022 5,82,493 5,86,596 5,81,852 5,86,603 5,88,765 6,07,610 189'66'9 6,01,256 6,16,305 5,54,935 296,80,0 6,05,961 0,05,056 c1

8,52,133

1,13,474

4,866

15,482

3,807

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1801-92

Table No. XXIX,—showing REVENUE derived from Land.

13		Remarks,				-														
12		Total miscellaneous	Rs.	70,358	5,780	2,450	1,170	1,552	1,455	1,380	1,992	1,556	2,580	1,459	2,162	2,298	1,694	1,813	2,651	
ıı	Revenue	.iţţs2	Re.	:	i l	i	322	215	386	:	:	: 	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	
16	ANEOUS	Sale of wood from rakhs and forests.	Rs.	702	-	:	:	:	;	:	፡	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	
6	Misgellaneous	By grazing leases,	Rs.	37,871	:	:	;	8	ව	123	8	100	146	150	92	1,243	633	829	821	
8		By enumeration of cattle.	R8.	17,986	;	:	:	i	:	:	:	:	ï	:	:	:	;	:	:	
7	YUR,	Total Auctuating revenne,	Rg.	20,510	17,350	3,496	2,088	4,635	497.4	4,151	2,218	1,310	679	361	1,167	2,258	1,000	1,558	1,701	
ο	FLUCTUATING REVENUE.	Under adyantage revenue.	Rs.	;	7	:	:	:	:	;	:	:	:		:	:	:	:	:	
15	LUCTUALI	Hevenne of waste lands drought un- der assessment,	Rs.	ŧ	:	ιņ	:	33	33	;	23	53	53	:	225	150	225	300	:	-
4		Revenue of alluvial	Rs.	16,369	12,963	2,566	2,115	3,658	2,996	2,451	1,128	324	9.0	ï	292	803	359	332	f 6	
က	-foosi enne	Fluetnating and mi lancons land rev (collections).	Rs.	90,808	23,139	5,955	4,158	280'9	5,022	5,540	4,216	2,896	3,268	1,823	9,320	1,556	7697	3,371	3,752	
63	-əp)	Fized land revenue	RG.	-116,00,72	28,44,257	5,87,727	6,89,658	5,86,657	5,88,701	29,567	801,00,0	6,00,328	6,09,449	196'20'9	0,06,369	6,00,033	461,80,0	0,67,560	0,70,975	
				:	:	:	:	:	÷	÷	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	-
				2-73	84.	:	:	:	:	:	:	ŧ	:	:	:	:	:	:	ŧ	
		ċ		to 1872	to 1877	:	፧	:	:	:	:	:	፥	÷	፥	:	:	:	ŧ	
-		Peniod.		808-60	873-74	Ē	. :	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	3	
		H		Total of 6 years 1868-69 to 1872-73	Total of 5 years 1873-74 to 1877-78	:	:	E	i	:	:	:	፥	:	:	ŧ	:	:	•	
				of 5 y	of 5 y	6		:	e1	: g	-	19	9		:	: c	:	1	; භ	
				Totul	Totul	1878-79	1870-80	1880-81	1881-83	1882-83	1883-81	1881-85	1885-80	1880-87	1887-88	1888-80	1880-00	1690-91	1891-92	

Table No. XXX,-showing ASSIGNED REVENUE.

t Dis	trict.						. XIV
12		Total.	Rs.	16,264	21,879	9,874	. 48,017
11	FIS.	For life.	Rs.	6,185	2,296	1,547	10,028
10	DETAIL OF JAGIRS AND MUAFIS.	During pleasare of Government.	№s.	2,295	1,313	1,296	4,904
0	IL OF JAGIR	Juring term of Settlement.	Rs.	1,567	121	292	1,980
8	Deta	Daring maintenance of institu-	Rs.	4,089	348	378	4,815
4		In perpetuity.	Rs.	2,128	17,801	6,361	26,290
9		.Total.	Rs.	23,410	26,512	14,348	64,270
າລ	UE.	.sinemasissa nedi()	Rs.	143	20	112	275
4	Assigned Revenue.	Sonewolla iriblinX	Rs.	3,619	2,569	2,323	8,511
က	Assig	.sm.hnI	Rs.	3,384	2,044	2,039	794.4
2		Aèum bas rizèL	Rs.	16,264	21,879	9,874	48,017
				:	:	:	:
		å]	:	፥	:	:
1		ТАНВІГ.		. :	:	:	Total District
				Gujrát	Phália	Khárián	Total]

Table No. XXXI,—showing BALANCES, REWISSIONS and TAKAVI.

]	L			2	:3	4	5
					Balance of 1	AND REVENUE		
	Year.				Fixed revenue.	Fluctuating and miscellaneous revenue.	Reduction of fixed demand on account of bad seasons, deterioration, &e., in rupees.	Takávi advances
-		 	متنسيش والاحتساد					
1868-69	•••	••-	•••	•••	978		8,748	625
1869-70	•••	•••		•••	2,604		·	470
1870-71	•••	•••	***	•••	3,178	11		1,700
1871-72	•••	•••	•••	•••	2,780			2,050
1872-73	•••	•••	•••	•••	2,762		G	1,925
1873-74	•••	•••	•••	•••	3,405		•••	3,905
1874-75	•••	•••	•	•••	3,837	•••		1,780
1875-76	•••	•••	•••	•••	4,505		G	2,265
1876-77	•••	•••	•••		2,739	69	66	845
1877-78	•••	•••	•••		3,708	504		845
1878-79	•••	•••	•••	•••	5,911	5,955	•••	494
1879-80	•••	•••	•••	•••	5,338	193		t••
1880-81	•••	•••	***	•••	2,215	, 309		429
1881-82	•••	•••	•••		2,241	7		995
1882-83	•••	•••	•••		1,392	78		.855
18 83 - 84		•••	•••	•••	1,688	127	• • •	4,204
1884-85	•••	•••	•••	•••	780	163		3,980
1885-86	•••		•••	•••	9,765	116 ·		5,002
1886-87	•••	•••	•••	•••	14,368	237	328	12,105
1887-88	•••	•••	•••	•••	2,649	139	239	12,310
1888-89	•••	•••	•••	•••	454	923		8,640
1889-90	•••	**1	•••	•	1,507	252		•••
1890-91	•••	•••	•••	•••	1,851	55		2,240
1891-92	•••	•••	•••	•••	26,526	545		4,000

xxix Nors.—These figures are taken from Statements XXXV and XXXVB, of the Revenue Report up to 1886-87, and from Statements XA. and XB. for succeeding years. No details for transfers by agriculturists and others, and no figures for redemption are available before 1874-75. The figures for earlier years include all redemptions, The figures for redemptions of lateyears include all redemptions.

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No. XXXII,-showing	
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able No. XXXII,—showing	
Table No. XXXII,—showing	
Table No. XXXII,—showing SALES and MORTGAGES of LAND.	
Table No. XXXII,—showing	
Table No. XXXII,—showing	
Table No. XXXII,—showing	

Gujr	at D	istri	ct.]					
	10		rrists.	Nortgage moner.	Rs.		11,818	4, 113 1,818 10,886 10,886 1,837 20,230 31,500
	18	D LANDS.	Non-agriculturists.	Area of land in acres.		:	192	292 98 771 165 118 118 12,125
	17	ORTGAGEI	· Non-	Number of cases.		;	103	11 12 22 23 23 23 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25
	10	Redemetion of Mortgaged Lands.	ists.	Nortzeze money.	Rs.	:	15,919	1,137 12,860 9,286 9,286 55,037 10,693 11,693 1,71,643 1,71,643 1,75,339 1,75,339 1,75,339
ND.	15	Redempt	Agriculturists.	esoron in and it.		:	657	90 1119 2,111 807 1131 805 11,116 805 4,619 12,562 12,563
of LA	77			Lumber of eases.		:	121	16 103 163 153 150 150 160 1,893 2,73 2,73 4,157
AGES	13		urists.	Notezaze money.	Rs.	:	3,39,257	83,170 1,05,101 1,30,50 1,15,20 1,15,228 1,05,228 1,05,228 1,05,228 1,05,228 1,05,228 1,05,228 1,01,100 2,51,012 3,57,002 3,57,002 1,75,110 1,75,110 1,75,110 1,75,110 1,75,110 1,49,770
RTG	13	Ð.	Non-agriculturists.	Area of land in acres.		:	11,235	2,388 3,258 3,258 3,051 1,960 1,960 3,122 6,115 7,323 7,323 12,717
nd MC	п	S OF LAY	Non	Number of eases.		:	2,106	674 638 801 801 635 171 771 801 9,841 9,841 9,841 9,841 6,339 9,339
SALES and MORTGAGES of LAND	10	Mortgags of Land	ists.	Nortgage model.	Rs.	2,83,830	47,013	11, F26 19, 201 30, 151 16, 781 17, 291 27, 255 31, 189 82, 747 86, 634 11, 80, 91 4, 90, 530 2, 40, 530 6, 713 6, 713 6, 713 713 714 715 715 715 715 715 715 715 715 715 715
	6		Agriculturists.	Area of land in acres.		23,017	1,771	411 573 948 1,154 1,050 1,050 2,062 3,392 11,673 11,673 11,673 11,673 11,673 11,673 11,673 11,673 11,673 11,673 11,673 11,716 12,716 13,716
owing	80		Ą į	Kumber of eases.		2,309	420	1165 117 117 117 11,806 11,479 11,479 2,173 2,173 2,173 1,537 1,537 4,636 4,636 4,636
XXXII,—showing	1.		urists.	Ригейлые топеу.	Rs.	:	46,316	13,605 18,503 30,319 32,719 31,980 28,563 31,570 31,505 42,183 42,183 1,90,907 57,107 76,008
XXX	9		agriculí urists.	Area of land in acres,] [i	2, 151	511 708 708 833 833 724 368 572 1,057 610 2,016 4,173 900 1,054 1,054 1,986
Table No.	to	SALES OF LAND.	Non-«	Number of eases.		:	230	73 88 1190 1190 1188 80 1086 2231 8850 330 330 330 330
Tab	4	SALES O	isls.	Parchase money.	Rs.	60,619	11,251	6,853 10,895 17,113 21,512 23,225 19,134 26,718 20,108 89,270 89,270 89,270 1,92,860 1,92,860 1,72,123 1,70,013
	က		Agriculturists.	Area of land in acres.		3,000	1,831	270 652 687 687 885 407 1,121 1,587 908 1,312 3,007 2,827
	ଟୀ		β	Number of eases.		383	201	37 80 131 034 04 07 189 1,032 418 1,032 419 410 410 410 410 410 410 410 410 410 410
	1			Peniod. Districe vigues.		Total of six years, 1868.00 to 1873.74.	Fotal of four years, 1874-75 to 1877-78.	1878-70

rat Di 	strict.]	1	İ	1				ı İ
4			Total.	က	1,746	533	222	2,504
9		1891.92.	Optional.	:	264	99	10	340
zc.	os registered.		Compulsory.	m	1,383	429	198	2.013
4	Nomber of derds registered.		Total	83	1,047	330	120	1,499
က		1890-91.	Optional.	:	135	4.0	11	200
7			Compulsory.	64	912	276	109	1,299
			-	:	:	:	:	
				:	÷	:	:	;
					:	:	:	strict
-	•			:	:	:	÷	Total of District
				.út	Gujrát	Khárián	Phália	Tota
		•	•	Registrar, Gujrát	Sub-Registrar, Gujrát	33	6	
1				gistı	ıb-Re	•	7	

[Punjab Gazetteer,

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TAX deman
INCOME TA
A,-showing
O. XXXIV A
No. X.
Table No.

							L	Punja	in Ga	260066
17		mand.	Amount of tax,	Ra.	15,793	16,518	16,510	17,433	10,511	23,010
91	III D.	Final demand.	Number of assesses.		801	080	1,024	1,051	1,076	1,192
	Onapter III D,		Amount of tax.	Rs.	18,168	17,789	18,965	18,013	23,520	27,115
17		Original demand.	Number of assesses.		1,038	1,072	1,192	1,075	1,168	1,296
13			fmount of taz.	Rs.	:	:	:	:	*** **********************************	:
12	ш с.	Final demand.	Number of assess.	-	:	:	:	:	:	
=	Силетии III С,	,	Amount of tax.	Rs.	:	:	:	:	:	:
92		Final demand. Original demand.	Number of assesss.		:	:	:	:	:	i .
C		onand.	Amount of lax,	RB.	:	:	:	:	i	:
	1II B.	Final d	Number of assesss.		:	:	:	:	:	:
7	Силетви III В.	Original denand.	Amount of tax.	Rs.	:	:	:	:	:	:
9		Original	Number of assesses.		:	:	:	:	:	:
10			Imount of inz.	Rs.	230	211	378	436	911:	428
4	t III A.	Final demand.	Number of assesses.		10	10	1.1	+4 +1	77	17
e	Cnarten III A.	Original demand.	Amount of tax.	Rs.	239	211	378	436	.416	128
69		Original	Zumber of assesses,		10	10	11		71	17
	,		·		:	:	:	:	:	÷
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			•	ļ	:	:	:	:	È	:
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					፧	:	:	:	:	:
			•		1856-87	1887-83	1888.89	1889.90	1890-91	1691-93

Table No. XXXV,—showing EXCISE STATISTICS.

ru.	jrat	וצוע	rict.	l																XXII
	16	виом			.frioT	Rs.	9.754	11 668	13.505	13,858	14,174	1 \$,657	13,632	11,056	13,740	14,550	15,864	18,868	18,067	20,348
	11	Excisi revenur vrom			Drugs.	Rs.	3,810	3,611	3,696	4,280	4,663	4,872	4,360	4,366	3,972	4,370	4,231	4,065	4,882	4,866
	13	Excisi			Fermented Liquors.	Rs.	5,035	8,057	008'6	9,578	9,511	0,785	0,272	0,630	0,768	10,171	11,633	13,903	13,185	16, 192
	12,				Other Drugs.		: :	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
	11		in mannds.		Врзлg.	81	56	8	33	20	69	09	38	213	14.1	183	303	27.1	41	21
201	10	Intoxicating Dadgs.	Consumption in manuds.		Charas.	61	24	4	49	2	9	A. 1-100	4	42	33	က	43	ಕ	4	53
{ { { {	6	[NTOXICATI	Ğ	-	.mniqO	4	် စ	5	0	9	80	9	13	₹9	**	7	*5	80	ric.	60
	8	-	f Retail		Other Drugs.	13	20	ı	ຜ	ı	25	ຜ	ဖ	1C	ນ	10	10	10	119	10
0	7	- 	Number of Retail Licenses.		.muiq0	25	13	23	7.3	9	မ	9	ເລ	9	13	13	10	10	10	10
	9		tion in		Country Spirits.	1,111	1,146	1,790	2,056	1,617	1,862	1,707	1,629	1,533	1,530	1,751	1,995	2,036	2,050	2,566
	75	JORS.	Consumption in gallons.		Rum.	238	131	19	21	18	80	ø	129	225	က	10	ø,	176	106	116
	-4	Реимпитер породея.	f Retail		European liquors.	9	ဟ	9	r3	χş		±0	9	9	9	7	2	ဗ	۲-	7
	e	Fermi	Number of Retail Shops.	1	Conntry Spirits.	16	16	11	17	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	12	17	10	19
	67		illeries,	ısiQ	Number of Central	<u> </u>	-	П	લ	-	1	-1	-	1	-	ī	-	-	1	-
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						:	:	:	፧	:	፥	፥	፤	፧	:	:	:	፧	፥	:
	1			7,1,0		:	:	:	÷	:	:	፧	:	i	:	፥	:	:	:	
-						1877-78	1878-70	1870-50	1880-61	1881-82	1882-53	1883-81	1881-85	1885-86	1886-87	1887-89	1888-89	1850-90	1890-01	1801-92

xxxiv												[]	un	jab	Ga	ıze	tte	er,	
	12		ККМАВКЅ.						•							,			
	11		Total expenditure.	62,645	43,911	36,103	38,607	42,760	48,208	40,735	46,932	60,803	090'03	68,130	289,43	68,855	56,067	\$16'12	
UNDS.	10		Public Works.	31,735	20,362	13,569	15,302	17,790	22,688	20,051	10,588	11,463	12, 126	179,72	12,033	26,615	35,185	23,328	
XXXVI,-showing DISTRICT FUNDS.	6	T HUPRES.	Viseellaneous.	1,768	1,88,1	1,271	1,137	1,685	119'1	521	1,014	;	;	;	;	;	:	:	
g dist	₩	ANNUAL EXPENDITURE IN HUPRES.	Medical.	5,050	7,709	7,552	6,413	7,900	7,938	10,030	9,853	10,993	13,721	12,151	11,427	11,450	12,261	12,286	
-showin	7 7 NAVAL EXPE		r.ducation,	10,005	10,777	10,833	12,020	12,105	12,317	12,967	13,317	17,318	21,705	14,357	16,370	16,372	15,891	16,701	
XXVI,-	9		District post and arborical- ture.	1,617	1,555	1,435	1,760	. 1,588	1,625	1,509	1,472	3,415	2,587	:	;	i	:	. :	
Table No. X	10		.JnomfeildateA %	1,570	1,621	1,743	1,675	1,701	2,050	1,627	1,659	1,957	1,630	2,510	2,715	2,431	2,322	2,379	
$\mathbb{T}abl$	77	TUPRES.	,otnooni Indou	56,955	48,705	66,717	66,012	70,591			63,516	60,316	61,765	69,916	502,03	63,933	68,897	73,968	
	3	INCOME IN BU	ANNUAL INCOME IN RUPEES.	Miscellaneons.	:	:	2,161	1,519	4,176		Not avaniable.	5,858	996'9	11,339	7,321	0,610	10,142	12,324	16,865
	£1	Амкиль	Provincial rates.	:	:	61,553	61,463	80,118	·	٠.	67,688	55,380	53,420	52,595	53,087	53,791	51,573	57,101	
			CARCAL MARKET CONTRACTOR OF THE PARTY OF THE	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	•	:	:	:	:	
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8	70		ided.	Scholars.						
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29	SCHO	N'IAC	led.	Scholars.						
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27	PRIMARY SCHOOLS.	Δı	Bound.	Scholars.						
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25			Aided. Unaided.	Scholars.						
		i.	σ_m	Schools.						
23		CULA	led.	Scholars.						
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30	SCHO	TEST THE		Schools.						
13	MIDDLE SCHOOLS.		Unarded.	Scholars.						
18	MID		L'm	Schools.						
17		English.	Aided.	Scholars.						
16			Engr	3117	Schools.					
15	11.						Board.	Scholars.		
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57			ERNACULAR.	Vennacular.	ernacular.	AR.	AR.	AR.	Una	Schools.
1 1	!					Aided.	Scholars.			
10 11						ERNA	ERNA	ERNA	A io	Schools,
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10	Indigenous Schools for Gibles.		Scholars.		471	125	101	169	162
4	INDIGENOUS		Schools.		40	ıo	ю	ω	. 10
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17			1891.		6,778	4,062	1,618	1,288	1,033	698	988	189	1,379	800	2,811	302		
16			1890.		8,123	5,700	2,335	711	2,451	1,598	1,081	701	1,455	280	4,030	1,275		
15		Children.	1880.		6,319	5,013	1,733	364	1,355	1,161	1,120	265	1,434	209	3,480	1,361		
17		0	1888.	-i-	5,112	4,156	1,550	336	1,113	986	1,125	226	1,231	303	2,776	178		
13			1887.	j	4,266	4,228	1,624	30.4	788	1,101	1,481	369	1,426	212	2,116	1,112		
13			1891.		4,747	4,281	1,721	1,305	1,149	963	1,334	718	1,230	1,343	2,562	779		
11	TREATE		1890.	Ī	4,897	4,578	2,300	1,360	2,033	1,815	027	743	1,217	073	3,115	1,306		
10	ATIENTS	Women.	1889.	İ	3,116	3,418	1,732	678	1,022	266	1881	298	636	196	2,121	1,245		
6	Nows	Men.	1888.	-i	2,118	2,022	1,397	583	830	928	216	015	978	833	1,800	1,116		
8			1887.		2,791	2,701	1,924	589	825	1,238	1,113	616	861	200	1,477	1,816		
2			Men.	Мен.	1891.		11,390	7,853	5,315	4,068	3,421	3,122	3,210	2,293	3,216	3,118	5,216	3,346
9					1890.	<u> </u>	15,478	8,330	5,085	3,383	4,617	4,120	2,425	1,875	3,519	3,511	6,521	3,629
9					1880.	j	11,050	0,831	5,137	2,643	2,601	2,865	2,333	1,119	3,050	3,019	4,713	3,210
-4						1888.	 	9,115	189,3	4,251	2,609	2,397	2,880	2,169	2,227	2,601	2,651	4,090
es			1887.		11,511	0,038	1,318	3,119	2,081	3,481	2,601	1,862	1,988	2,568	4,169	2,026		
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61		Class of Dispensary.			2nd Class	Do.	Do.	ро.	Do.	D0.	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.		
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		}		Gujrút	Jalálpur	Dinga	Klıárián	Phália	Karlkawila	Khohar	Kotla	Mong	Kádirabad	Kuhjáh	Sadullapur			

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	33			1891.		4,120	1,277	1,121	988	919	703	199	000	699	629	1,183	74.5
led.	31	,	torees.	1890.		 4,353	1,211	200	918	1,063	623	623	212	753	618	1,062	790
concluc	30		CBB IN	1850.	,	 4,255	1,238	603	900	, 952	628	622	533	691	179	1,074	089
	08		Expenditure in Robers.	1888.		3,618	1,204	270	1,017	919	172	581	289	510	109	929	7223
DISTRICT—concluded.	23	4	ei ·	1887.		2,816	1,195	202	950	98	989	889	- 223.	289	603	843	761
LT DI	27	===]	1891.		719	2	27 27	92	<u>н</u>	88	က	2.5	10	21	-	œ
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RIES	3.5	tared.	In-door	1888.		 613	ន	19	30	10	37	:	56	:	10	63	1
DISPENSARIES	- R	NUMBER OF PATIENTS TREATED.		1887.		 1,254	31	177	;	. 02	2.1		0	:		13	:
ISPE	33	OF PATE	•	1891.		25,915	17,099	8,717	199'9	5,606	4,934	5,511	3,725	5,831	2,400	10,623	4,517
	21	Мсивен		1390.		28,408	18,704	10,328	5,181	9,101	7,530	4,136	3,319	6,221	5,097	13,705	006,3
KING	୍ଷ		Total Palients.	1880.		 20, 185	15,291	8,902	3,685	4,081	5,026	4,331	1,751	5,462	4,590	10,356	5,816
WOR	10		Total	1888.		16,675 2	13,062 1	7,198	3,618	4,370	4,796	4,511	3,068	4,813	3,786	8,666	4,200
the	- 81			1887.		18,571	13,057 1	7,806	3,402	3,694	5,820	5,198	2,377	4,278	3,515	7,791	5,581
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Table No. XXXVIII,—showing the WORKING of			Class of Dispensary.			2nd Class	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	То.	D0.	Do.
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111	[.letoT	Rs. 3,92,692	3,44,332	4,32,969	3,17,917	3,46,723	3,92,952	3,94,049	3,62,871	3,63,319	5,27,976	7,08,599	5,76,919	4,76,726	3,70,096	6,11,189
10	SUITS.	Other suits.	Rs.	:	:	:	21,770	16,294	20,166	808,7	12,007	32,193	21,132	9,276	18,415	10,530	15,132
0	VALUE OF	mi sahgir vol. o t h e v im- moveable pro- perty.	Rs.	;	:	:	20,225	19,790	9,475	29,501	22,287	49,364	25,921	0,611	17,895	38,332	28,682
8	TOTAL	ni edugir roT beeseses bual	Rs.	:	:	:	23,218	42,473	31,490	17,439	26,835	1,07,211	3,32,583	1,64,316	1,00,108	1,26,224	1,75,778
7		For money or perty.	Bs.	:	:	:	2,81,510	3,14,395	3,32,918	3,08,123	2,97,190	3,39,208	3,28,963	3.93,716	3,40,278	1,95,010	3,93,597
9 .		Total.	6,495	7,804	8,899	7,541	7,840	8,044	8,290	7,314	8,189	8,870	8.683	8,358	7,982	9,158	9,023
D 13	CONCERNING	estine redico.	:	:	:	:	520	535	713	375	463	445	411	414	229	442	467
9 P 6	CIVIL SUITS O	Itights in other standarding property.	:	:	:	:	699	435	205	020	899	495	310	372	297	400	473
3	NUMBER OF C	Dual ni stilgiti .bəssəsən	:	:	:	:	782	1,093	1,345	810	1,151	1,207	1,216	1,079	858	1,070	1,060
2	N	sole property.	5,834	6,512	6,991	6,831	5,869	186'9	6,027	5,479	5,907	6,723	6,746	6,493	6,598	7,246	7,023
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Table No. XL,-showing CRIMINAL TRIALS.

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14 sposed.	Warrant cam.	Tried regularly.	049	478	1,019	1,062	905	1,106	993	1,053	1,150	1,077
13 I4	caece.	Tried summarily.	17	70	20	96	16	П	63	:	:	:
12 . Nuxunn or	Summons carce.	Tried regularly.	1,597	1,471	1,531	1,378	023	1,604	1,414	1,126	1,002	1,408
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10		Committed or referred.	89	49	89	84.	46	7.3	26	0‡	7.	-71
6	ry trial.	Zon-appealable sent ence passed,	32	123	13	135	20	18	22	10	:	·#
8	On summary trial.	Appealable sent c n c c	cı	:	:	:	77	:	:	:	:	63
7	r trial.	Zon-appeniable sentence	131	200	213	137	107	250	260	161	1221	186
Persons disposin	On regular trial.	Appealable sent on co	1,157	902	161.1	1,719	1,308	1,798	1,389	1,550	1,499	1,118
10		.hodvitkod.	· 08F	818	1,010	1,062	858	1,135	916 .	1,175	755	1,665
*	reithout l.	.abunorg 19d10 aQ	727	292	619	1,035	282	1,356	1,253	1,022	11.2	:
6	Discharged without trial.	In consequence of non- appearance of com- plainant or vithdraval of complaint.	2,841	2,509	2,310	2,232	1,315	1,819	1,777	1,736	1,653	1,853
es	.[#80t]	aib tof enostag to tadamZ	5,567	6,512	5,822	6,458	4,652	6,965	5,761	5,738	4,818	5,263
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t			1882	1883.	1881	1885	1886	1887	1888	1869	1800	1891

36 10 86 8 PERSONS SENTENCED TO FIND OR GIVE Sureties for good behaviour. 12 녆 3 230 Derce* Ž неездліганее to кеср the ፥ 13 Sureties of the peace. ፥ 31 33 99 61 53 In lieu of other punishment. 23 WHIPPING. menr ፥ 1 In addition to other punish-Table No. XLA,—showing PUNISHMENTS INFLICTED. 35.1 755 ,063 Without imprisonment. 2 FINE. 556 420 391 vich imprisonment. G . 53 15 \$ 20 PERSONS SENTENCED .elqmi2 : 8 IMPRISONMENT. 185 53 finement. Without solitary con-Rigorous. 101 322 351 65 ဗ With solitary confine-10 Penal servicude, ፥ TRANSPORTATION. ፡ ፥ : For a term. For life. : ፧ 3 Death. ¢3 : ፥ ፥ YRAR. ፥ 6881 1877 884 1888

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S INFLICTED
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27		MRNT.	cars ider.	.simple.	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	c 3	:	:	23	:	:	:	:
26		Imprisonment.	Two years and under,	Rigorous.	:	:	148	125	164	.es	151	152	202	152	257	228	230	212	331
25	ent.	[nths der.	.olqmi2	:	:	6/3	10	28	~	8	₹	L ~	15	. 13	13	21	10	37
72	NISHM		Six months and under.	Rigorous.	:	:	172	258	310	283	191	223	136	288	327	238	211	242	237
23	OF PU		doys ler.	.olqmi2	:	:	b	o	20	. 18	13	7	:	12	63	67	20	;	23
22	DETAIL OF PUNISHMENT.		Fifteen days and under.	Rigorous.	:	;	1	111	ន	22	14	13	9	20	8	26	73	11	38
22				Ароте Ra, 1,000.	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	. :	:	:	:	:	:	:
20				Rs. 1,000 and nnder.	:	:		:	:	:	:	:	-	:	:	Н	П	(rs _,	H
10				Rs. 500 and under.	:	:	20	43	=	4	₹9	:		17 (80	, ,	C3	п	13
18		FINE.		Rs. 100 and under.	:	:	28	15	44	0	10	14	14	9	43	23	27	19	202
17		Ĺ		Rs. 50 and under.	:	 :	191	267	285	237	184	227	281	261	456	200	302	266	436
16				Rs. 10 and under.	:	 :	129	831	1,311	852	608	1,142	1,244	975	1,328	1,076	930	795	269
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Table No. XLI, showing POLICE INQUIRIES	
le No. XLI,showing POLICE	UIRIES
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le No. XLI, showing	POLICE
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Guj	rat]	Distr	ict.]													xli
	16	TRD.		1801.	62	es	113	63	91	13	30	405	000	19	27	488	1,631
	15	CONVIC		1900.	37	П	103	1	63	38	2.1	321	899	,	18	199	1,570
	14	PERSONS		1839.	125	80	20	æ	6	20	23	287	611	181	23	745	1,751
	13	NUMBER OF PERSONS CONVICTED.		1888.	83	9	102	13	90	56	52	314	618	80	16	765	1,694
	12	Nux		1887.	20	æ	153	-	110	9	£3	384	386	103	36	833	1,617
	H	8		1891.	8	6	182	₹9	187	147	2	1,139	1,765	98	228	1,773	4,282
STES.	10	PERSONS ABBREED SUMMONED.		1890.	55	₹1	188	က	102	114	45	827	1,292	19	282	2,802	4,834
11 O %	6	IBSONS A		1889.	155	4	123	14	170	327	29	200	1,690	237	212	3,510	5,767
NT E	8	ão.		1888.	116	0	230	6	170	278	112	891	1,697	122	300	3,510	5,743
ALL, SHOWING FOLICE INCOLKIES	2	Numbeu		1887.	212	01	268	Ħ	236	353	81	166	2,082	224	357	4,030	6,931
r Sur	9	rro.		1891.	=	<u> </u>	120	63	200	:	81	£29	1,101	13	320	2,484	3,705
мопя	13	TIBED II		1800.	0	က	24	63	2.10	63	47	414	714	10	214	1,870	2,885
1	4	CASÎR INQUIBED INTO.		1889.	181	-89	10	10	427	63	63	419	800	33	425	2,454	3,877
, o e	₆₀	ő		1888.	13	0	90	æ	330	63	93	442	908	11	410	2,783	3,825
Laure		Мумивв		1887.	=	0	8	0	610	63	72	416	1,050	14	418	3,167	4,291
`				_		÷	÷	:	-	:	:	:	:	÷	:	÷	' -
						:	. :	÷	:	:	÷	:	:	i	:	:	:
					:	:	:	:	ŧ	:	:	:	:	:	: ·	:	cos
	1		NATURE OF OFFINCE,		Rioting or unlawful assembly	Murder and attempts to murder	Total serious offences against the person	Abduction of married women	Total serious offences against property	Total minor offences against the person	Cattlo thoft	Total minor offences against property	Total cognizable offences	Rioting, unlawful assembly and affray	Offences relating to marriage	Total non-cognizable offences	Grand total of offences

AUL.
TI C
g CONVICTS in GAUL.
CON
,-showing
I,—sh
XLII,
Table No.
E

26	lar Ts.	Profits of convict labour.	Rs. 1,920	1,550	1,330	2,104	1,297	. 1,499	2,558	770	1,439	1,500	1,2p4	1,1,8	2,228	2,131	2,242
25.	Pecuniary results.	Gost of maintenance.	Rs. 14,709	16,68G	15,586	14,133	14,232	13,002	12,064	12,329	11,524	12,031	15,143	15,134	14,205	14,341	13,407
<u>5</u> 61	ıLY iD.	More than twice.	10	w	ເລ	က	:	12	တ	Ξ	18	80	11	10	17	22	ਲ
23	Previously convicted.	Twice.	21	23	16	13	1~	Ø	13	귀	<u>e</u>	16	22	13	17	12	FI
22	PRE	Опсе,	53	89	18	11	18	37	48	49	47	3.0	40	70	41	1. 9	31
21		Death.	Ħ	H	:	०२	7-1	H	yo .	တ	<u>د</u>	C/J	ນລ	က	တ	ᆔ	77
20	E 03	Over 10 years and transportation.	H	7	C)	, 	H	:	က	വ	ᡧ	က	တ	က	Ħ	C.1	-
1.0	SENTENCE TICTS.	Fire years to 10 years.	တ	FO.	າວ	<u></u>	ပ	Ħ	Ç1	າລ	4	io.	13	C/J	খ	10	4
18		Two years to 5 years.	12	1	1~	11	18	6	23	T.	23	22	46	37	21	65	18
11		One year to 2 years.	176	172	62	بي بر	55	73	11	00	110	7.1	117	120	85	88	101
16	Length	Siz months to I year.	230	285	34	22	45.	40	89	89		85	116	129	133	220	1-61
15	Ħ	Under 6 months,	260	505	57	103	72	S	236	28.1	382	393	486	320	383	323	437
14	OF	Ochers.	:	:	:	:	:	42	86	76	ŝ	61	96	58	90	117	130
13	l I	Commercial.	:	:	າລ	ব্য	1	rO.	21	77	10	10	18	17	32	28	272
12	CONVICTS.	Agricultural.	627	909	101	135	120	140	263	300	421	424	584	463	388	368	468
Ħ		Service.	4	C 3	4	37	73	15	26	6#	3,5	53	3	7.0	92	165	68 .
2	VIOUS	Professional.	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	9	41	ক	Ø	:	:	:
6	PRE	Official.	1,4	14	:	#	က	хo	Ŧ	757	17	4	6	14	4	14	12
8	OF.	Others.	:	:	:	:	:	4	21	17	14	က	:	:	:	:	:
7	RELIGION OF CONVICTS.	Hindús and Sikha,	99	91	G	23	15	77	42	74	83	48	48	43	40	63	62
9	RECIG	Mubammadaus.	861	936	1.43	163	172	190	381	400	541	529	746	209	569	959	269
23	R IM- NED F THE	Females.	23	30	32	23	33	25	34	20	18	15	20	17	27	17	21
4	NUMBER IM- PRISONED DURING THE	plales.	7.48	740	474	617	581	443	410	453	505	505	774	633	909	602	789
က	R IN T BE- G OF	Females.	1	т е	- ø	Į.	· 61	က	Ĉ1	12	П	Óì	က	:	ນລ	က	63
c2	NUMBER IN GAOL AT BE- GINNING OF	Alales.	626	287	255	154	197	195	202	174	164	171	199	260	245	214	175
	-	-	†	<i>;</i> -		: :		:	:	:	:		:	:	:	:	: :
-		Year.		:	: :	: ;	: :	: :	:	:	ï	•	:	:	:		: :
		ξ	1877	1878	1879	1880	1881	1882	1883	1884	1885	1886	1887	1888	1889	1890	1891

Gujr	at Di	strict.]				xlv
	11	. Вемарка,				
NS.	10	Регволя рег 100 оссиріей houses,	543	449	186	172
f TOW	G	Mumber of houses.	3,319	1,710	1,019	930
rion o	æ	ваоідібат төйдО.	12	15	4	49
No. XLIII,—showing the POPULATION of TOWNS.	7	,ឧពត្វភិបាលភាព ,	12,824	7,822	3,728	2,308
r the I	9	.eaiat	:	:	:	:
showing	13	Sikbs.	452	48	216	598
SIII,—	4	Hindús,	4,703	3,180	1,529	1,921
le No. XI	က	Total Population,	18,050	11,065	5,474	5,424
Table			:	:	:	
	23	i.	:	:	:	:
		Town.	Gujrák	Jalálpar	Khanjáh	Dinga
				:	<u> </u>	:
	1	Tahsíl.		GUJBAT		Килвіан

[Punjab Gazetteer,

ZIAI	ı	ſ	1	ı	m	67	լ բաղյա		PPECLY
	13	YEAR	1891.		498	192	206	225	
	12	овіме тив	1890.		1,363	1,118	460	515	
	11	GISTERED D	1889.		255	252	222	200	
0WNS.	10	Total deaths registered during the	1888.		275	297	761	216	
HS for T	0	Тотап	1887.		283	275	265	253	
d DEAT	æ	YEAR,	1891.		274	212	202	183	
THS an	4	URING TIE	1890.		361	287	261	201	
ring BIR	9	DISTERED DI	1889.		423	380	281	948	
V,—show	ນລ	Total births registered during tile year,	1888.		396	346	077	253	
Table No. XLIV,—showing BIRTHS and DEATHS for TOWNS.	4	Total	1887.		379	314	288	264	-
Ťable	හ	TOTAL PO- PULATION BY THE CENBUS OF	1891.		9,340	6,710	5,665	5,400	
	67		Ж		Males	Fomales	Males	Females	
	1		Town.				111111111111111111111111111111111111111	S contained to the cont	

GUJRAT DISTRICT.	GUJRAT DISTRICT.	STRICT	L.
Guirát, a. b. d. e. f. g	Gujrát.		
Lidla Musa, b. d. c. f. g	12 Lála Musa.	ਦੌਂ -	
Khárián, a. b. d. c. f. 9	22 10 , Khárián.	•	- 10 m / 1 m / 1 m
Naurangabad, b. d. c. g	31 19 9 N		Littibilis.
Thelum	33 21 11 2		FORCE SERVICIONS.
Kunjúh, c. g	7 12 23 31		Counting and and a
Mangowil, g	12 15 23 32		Oamping-ground.
Phália, a, c, e. g	32 29 32 35		Negarinousca.
Kadirabad, b. c. g	40 30 41 40	J.	ition.
Kothála Shekhán, b. c. g	40 36 37 37	37 39 35 27 19 12 Kothála Shekhán.	Pu:
30hawa, c	36 31 39 36	39 32 39 26 11 17 7 Sobúwa.	uja
Ranwál	23 26 39 30	36 38 18 12 11 15 21 20 Ranwal.	י פו
laura, f. g	17 6 12 16	16 18 16 24 23 33 20 22 24 Jaura.	<i>.</i>
Dinga, b, d, c, f, g	22 15 14 18	18 20 17 25 18 28 23 10 18 7 Dingn.	zet
Inlikawala, f	28 10 20 20	20 22 23 30 20 30 23 16 22 13 6 Cbilidawdla.	, 60 5
Mong, d. e. g	31 27 24 3	23 25 29 25 16 24 14 7 23 19 13 6 Mong.	,,,
Pindi Baha-ud-dín, f	34 27 28 20	26 28 27 31 19 26 16 9 24 21 14 8 3 Pindl Baha-ud-din,	G.
Ala, J	40 33 40 3	30 32 33 37 21 20 17 11 26 27 29 13 7 6 Alb.	i) r
Morádvál	45 40 37 3	36 38 39 35 10 23 11 9 39 32 25 19 13 12 6 Nordavil.	3 -0
Daulatnagar, c. g	12 8 14 2	23 25 17 21 37 47 46 39 33 16 23 29 35 37 43 48 Daulatungur,	
Kotláh, e '	20 13 13 2	22 24 25 29 42 52 48 41 38 16 25 29 37 37 44 50 8 Kotláh.	
Inlálpur, c. 6. 9	9 15 24 3	50 55 10 17	Jalálpur.
Kariánwála, <i>b. e. g.</i>	18 19 26 3	35 37 25 31 40 60 69 61 43 28 31 40 46 48 51 59 13 15 11	10 Kariánwála,
Surakhpur,	23 21 36 4	46 38 39 36 55 61 65 59 48 39 45 51 67 59 65 70 21 25 15	5 11 Surakhpur
Naoshera	13 29 39 3	39 41 20 26 45 52 55 49 37 29 35 41 47 49 55 60 16 29 (6 10 11 Naoshora,
Zhohar	33 21 18	0 11 30 28 26 37 28 21 32 20 13 10 14 17 21 21 27 32 31 42	2 44 54 48 Khohár.
Kathúla, c. d. e. f. g	5, 17 26 3	35 37 7 12 32 37 42 38 22 10 24 31 35 30 45 47 18 26 12	21 26 15 45 Kat
Kathalu Forry	7 19 28 3	37 39 9 14 34 39 44 40 24 21 26 33 37 41 47 49 29 23 .1.	-3
Palku Forry	0 21 30 3	39 41 11 16 36 41 46 42 26 23 28 35 39 43 60 61 22 39 16	25 39 10 49 4- 2 1
Pariánwála, <i>d. e. g.</i>	20 10 24 3	30 32 13 8 11 18 20 18 6 14 12 17 19 10 25 27 26 29 20	35 44 33 24 20 20 3,
Shádiwál, g	5 13 23 3.	19 29 21 27 33 31 37 43 16 23	21 28 17 34 4 6 8,
Sadullapur, e	16 20 23 3	34 36 19 5 16 22 24 20 9 16 16 23 27 26 32 34 28 25 25 25	5 29 36 27 20 15 17 19 Sadullapur.

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